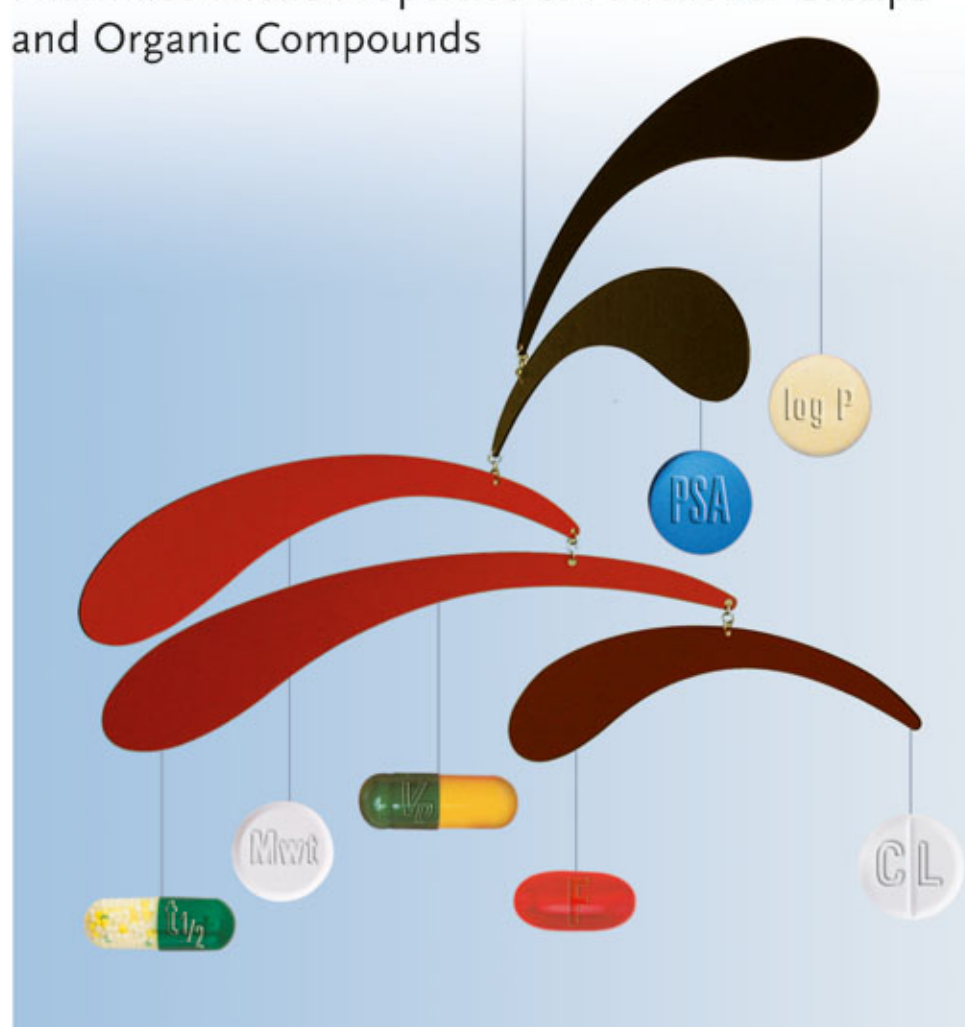


Lead Optimization for Medicinal Chemists

Pharmacokinetic Properties of Functional Groups and Organic Compounds



Florencio Zaragoza Dörwald

**Lead Optimization
for Medicinal Chemists**

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Contents

Introduction *XIII*

Glossary and Abbreviations *XV*

Part I Introduction *1*

1 The Drug Discovery Process *3*

1.1 Pharmacokinetics–Structure Relationship *5*

1.2 The Future of Small-Molecule Drugs *9*

References *11*

2 Lead Optimization *13*

2.1 What Limits/Reduces Oral Bioavailability? *14*

2.2 What Limits/Reduces Plasma Half-Life? *15*

2.3 How to Improve bbb-Penetration? *16*

2.4 How to Avoid CYP Inhibition/Induction? *16*

2.5 How to Avoid Interaction with the Human
Ether-à-go-go-Related Gene (hERG)? *17*

2.6 How to Prevent Toxicity? *17*

2.7 Examples of PK-Optimization in Animals *20*

2.7.1 Dihydroorotate Dehydrogenase Inhibitors *20*

2.7.2 Matrix Metalloproteinase Inhibitors *21*

2.7.3 Antibacterial Aminobenzenesulfonamides *21*

2.7.4 Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitors *22*

2.7.5 5-HT_{1A} Agonists *23*

2.7.6 Dipeptidyl Peptidase IV Inhibitors; Structural Variations of Sitagliptin *23*

2.7.7 P-Selectin Inhibitors *24*

2.7.8 β_3 -Adrenergic Agonists *24*

2.7.9 Vanilloid-1 Antagonists *25*

2.7.10 HIV Protease Inhibitors *25*

2.7.11 Matrix Metalloproteinase Inhibitors (Tested in Rats) *26*

2.7.12 HIV Integrase Inhibitors *26*

2.7.13 Dopamine D₃ Antagonists *27*

2.7.14 Inhibitors of Soluble Epoxide Hydrolase (Tested in Mice, po) *28*

| | | |
|--------|--|----|
| 2.7.15 | Melanin-Concentrating Hormone Receptor-1 Antagonists | 29 |
| | References | 29 |

Part II The Pharmacokinetic Properties of Compound Classes 33

| | | |
|-----------|------------------------------|----|
| 3 | Alkanes | 35 |
| 3.1 | Metabolism | 36 |
| | References | 39 |
| 4 | Alkenes and Alkynes | 40 |
| 4.1 | Metabolism | 40 |
| | References | 44 |
| 5 | Arenes | 45 |
| 5.1 | Metabolism | 45 |
| 6 | Halides | 49 |
| 6.1 | Fluorine | 49 |
| 6.2 | Chlorine | 51 |
| 6.3 | Bromine | 53 |
| 6.4 | Iodine | 53 |
| 6.5 | Alkylating Agents | 54 |
| | Reference | 55 |
| 7 | Azides | 58 |
| 8 | Nitro Compounds | 59 |
| 8.1 | Metabolism | 60 |
| 9 | Azo Compounds | 62 |
| 10 | Triazenes | 64 |
| 11 | Nitrates and Nitrites | 66 |
| | Further Reading | 67 |
| 12 | N-Nitroso Compounds | 68 |
| 13 | N-Oxides | 70 |
| 14 | Alcohols | 71 |
| 14.1 | Metabolism | 72 |

| | | |
|------|---|-----|
| 15 | Phenols | 82 |
| | References | 84 |
| 16 | Ethers | 91 |
| 16.1 | Metabolism | 92 |
| | Reference | 93 |
| 17 | Epoxides | 96 |
| 18 | Peroxides | 97 |
| 19 | Thiols | 98 |
| 20 | Thioethers | 100 |
| 20.1 | Metabolism | 101 |
| | Reference | 103 |
| 21 | Sulfoxides | 104 |
| 22 | Sulfones | 106 |
| 23 | Aliphatic Amines | 107 |
| 23.1 | Basicity | 110 |
| 23.2 | Metabolism | 110 |
| 23.3 | Rates of N-Dealkylation | 112 |
| | Reference | 114 |
| 24 | Quaternary Ammonium Salts | 118 |
| | Reference | 119 |
| 25 | Amidines | 120 |
| | Reference | 121 |
| 26 | Guanidines, Acylguanidines, and Biguanides | 122 |
| 26.1 | Acylguanidines | 123 |
| 26.2 | Biguanides | 123 |
| | Reference | 124 |
| 27 | Anilines | 133 |
| 27.1 | Metabolism | 135 |
| 28 | Hydrazines, Acylhydrazines, and Hydrazones | 137 |

| | | |
|-----------|--|------------|
| 29 | Aldehydes | 138 |
| 30 | Ketones | 139 |
| 31 | Carboxylic Acids | 144 |
| 31.1 | Metabolism | 145 |
| 31.2 | Bioisosteres of Carboxylic Acids | 146 |
| 31.3 | Amino Carboxylic Acids, <i>N</i> -Acyl Amino Acids, and Related Compounds | 147 |
| | References | 148 |
| 32 | Carboxylic Esters | 164 |
| | Reference | 165 |
| 33 | Amides | 166 |
| 34 | Lactams and Imides | 172 |
| 34.1 | Pyrazolone Antipyretics | 172 |
| 34.2 | Five-Membered Lactams as Nootropics | 173 |
| | References | 174 |
| 35 | Nitriles | 184 |
| | References | 185 |
| 36 | Carbonates | 186 |
| 37 | Carbamates | 187 |
| 37.1 | Carbamates as Hypnotics | 188 |
| | References | 189 |
| 38 | Ureas | 192 |
| | Reference | 193 |
| 39 | Thiocarbonyl Compounds | 201 |
| 40 | Sulfonic Acids | 203 |
| 41 | Sulfonic Esters | 206 |
| 42 | Sulfates and Sulfamic Acids | 207 |
| 43 | Phosphonic Acids | 209 |

| | | |
|------|---|-----|
| 44 | Phosphoric Acid Derivatives | 213 |
| 45 | N-(Aminoalkyl)benzamides, -Benzoates, and Related Compounds | 215 |
| | Reference | 216 |
| 46 | Arylalkylamines | 225 |
| 46.1 | Antihistaminics: History | 225 |
| | Reference | 226 |
| 47 | Phenethylamines (2-Phenylethylamines) | 267 |
| 47.1 | Biological Activity of Phenethylamines | 267 |
| 47.2 | Metabolism | 268 |
| 47.3 | Tetrahydroisochinoline and Related Compounds | 269 |
| | Further Reading | 270 |
| 48 | Aminoalkylindoles and Indole Alkaloids | 291 |
| | Reference | 291 |
| 49 | Phenothiazines | 301 |
| 49.1 | Metabolism | 302 |
| | References | 302 |
| 50 | Dibenzazepines and Related Tricyclic Compounds | 310 |
| 51 | 3-Aryloxy-2-Hydroxypropylamines (β-Adrenergic Antagonists; "β-Blockers") | 320 |
| 51.1 | Metabolism | 320 |
| 52 | Opiates | 329 |
| | Reference | 329 |
| 53 | N-(Carboxyalkyl)-α-Amino Acid Amides (Prils) | 335 |
| | Reference | 336 |
| 54 | Anilides and Amides of Glycine | 341 |
| 55 | Peptides, Peptidomimetics, and Related Oligoamides | 347 |
| 55.1 | Peptidomimetics | 348 |
| 55.2 | Thrombin Inhibitors and Related Compounds | 349 |
| | References | 350 |

| | | |
|-----------|---|------------|
| 56 | Oligoarylaminines, Oligoarylarnides, Oligoarylcarbarnates, and Oligoaryllureas | 365 |
| | References | 365 |
| 57 | Imidazoles | 377 |
| | References | 378 |
| 58 | Triazoles | 387 |
| 59 | Pyridines, Pyrimidines, and Related Compounds | 393 |
| 59.1 | Proton Pump Inhibitors | 396 |
| | References | 397 |
| 60 | Quinolines | 412 |
| 60.1 | Tecans | 415 |
| 60.2 | Quinazolines | 415 |
| | References | 416 |
| 61 | Nucleoside Analogs | 428 |
| | Reference | 428 |
| 62 | Dihydropyridines | 446 |
| 63 | Arenesulfonarnides | 450 |
| 63.1 | Antibacterials | 450 |
| 63.2 | Diuretics | 450 |
| | Reference | 451 |
| 64 | Sulfonyllureas | 462 |
| 65 | Benzodiazepines | 466 |
| | Reference | 467 |
| 66 | Steroids | 477 |
| | References | 478 |
| 67 | Anthracyclines | 492 |
| 68 | Arylacetic, Benzoic, and Related Carboxylic Acids (NSAIDS) | 497 |
| 68.1 | Salicylates | 497 |
| | References | 498 |

| | | |
|------|--|-----|
| 69 | Quinolonecarboxylic Acids (Gyrase Inhibitors) | 514 |
| 70 | β-Lactams | 522 |
| 70.1 | Cephalosporins | 523 |
| | Reference | 523 |
| 71 | Prostaglandin Analogs | 538 |
| 72 | Sartans | 543 |
| | Reference | 544 |
| 73 | Statins | 548 |
| 74 | Folic Acid Analogs (Antifolates) | 551 |
| 75 | Taxanes | 554 |
| | Reference | 554 |
| 76 | Macrocyclic Compounds | 557 |
| | Reference | 557 |
| | Index | 567 |

Introduction

The aim of this book is to provide medicinal chemists with a guide to the effect of structural modifications and functional groups on the pharmacokinetic (PK) properties of compounds, illustrated by a full collection of PK data. How does the plasma half-life and oral bioavailability change on small structural modifications? Which structural elements are allowed for a drug, and which are interchangeable, without significantly altering the PK properties? How can the oral bioavailability and half-life of a lead be increased? Questions of this type, critical to every small molecule drug development program, are addressed herein.

The tables contain most drugs for which human PK data have been reported. Some compounds in clinical development or with animal PK data only have also been included. The compounds listed include currently available drugs, withdrawn drugs, and compounds that failed during clinical trials. Compounds are arranged by keeping structurally closely related drugs together, to show variations of PK properties on minimal structural modification. This kind of information should be particularly valuable for medicinal chemists in their endeavor to improve the PK of their leads.

PK data are no natural constants inherent to a compound, such as its melting point or density, but depend on the sex, age, and condition of the patient, his diet, the dose of the drug, and the hour at which the measurement is performed. In a typical study with 5–10 healthy volunteers, half-life and oral bioavailability may show strong interindividual variations. Even for a single patient, PK properties of a drug will change with each new dosing. Thus, the establishment of a true PK SAR (structure activity relationship) for drugs would require PK data obtained from huge groups of people. Understandably, such information is not available.

The accuracy of compound quantization in plasma and thus the quality of PK data has increased dramatically in recent years. Moreover, a more complete PK profile is requested today by the regulatory agencies than in the past. Therefore, older PK data is usually less accurate and less complete than more recent data.

Because PK is highly variable between individuals, even high-quality data must be used with caution by physicians. Also, medicinal chemists should keep in mind that (i) reported PK values are always inaccurate and (ii) vary strongly between patients. Nevertheless, short of anything better, the values reported herein should give

chemists an estimate of the PK properties of compound classes and a knowledge of how structural modifications will probably affect PK.

The PK data and other information presented herein was collected from various sources:

- 1) Books: Goodman and Gillman's *The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics*, 9th edn, Hardman, J. G.; Limbird, L. E. eds., McGraw-Hill, 1996. Forth, W.; Henschler, D.; Rummel, W. *Pharmakologie und Toxikologie*. Mannheim: B.I. Wissenschaftsverlag, 1987. Jack, D. B. *Handbook of Clinical Pharmacokinetic Data*. Macmillan Publishers Ltd, 1992. Bochner, F.; Carruthers, G.; Kampmann, J.; Steiner, J. *Handbook of Clinical Pharmacology*, 2nd edn, Boston, Toronto: Little, Brown & Co, 1983;
- 2) Peer-reviewed publications, for example, Obach, R. S.; Lombardo, F.; Waters, N. J. Trend analysis of a database of intravenous pharmacokinetic parameters in humans for 670 drug compounds. *Drug Metab. Dispos.*, 2008, **36**, 1385–1405; Smith, D. A.; Jones, B. C.; Walker, D. K. Design of drugs involving the concepts and theories of drug metabolism and pharmacokinetics. *Medicinal Research Reviews*, 1996, **16**, 243–266;
- 3) Public online databases: EMA-filings (www.ema.europa.eu), the swiss Arzneimittel Kompendium (www.kompendium.ch), the drug bank (www.drugbank.ca), banque des données automatisée sur les médicaments (www.biam2.org), clinical drug use (www.clinicaldruguse.com), PharmGKB (www.pharmgkb.org), medsafe (www.medsafe.govt.nz).

On minor discrepancies between sources, the mean value was calculated. In case of major inconsistencies, preference was given to newer data. Clearance (CL) is reported as given in the literature; its consistency with the reported values of $t_{1/2}$ and V was not verified.

The values for polar surface area (PSA) and log P were calculated with ACD/Labs (Advanced Chemistry Development), Version 11.02 (uncharged compounds), or with Molinspiration Cheminformatics (www.molinspiration.com) (charged compounds).

The historical background of many drugs and therapeutic strategies was gathered from the books cited above, from peer-reviewed articles, and from the excellent assays of Walter Sneader, Professor at the Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences at the University of Strathclyde in Glasgow, Scotland.

Glossary and Abbreviations

| | |
|---------|--|
| ACE | angiotensin converting enzyme |
| ADME(T) | absorbtion, distribution, metabolism, excretion, (toxicity) |
| ADP | adenosine diphosphate |
| AMPA | α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid receptor, a glutamate receptor |
| ATP | adenosine triphosphate |
| AUC | area under the curve; area under a plot of the concentration of the drug in plasma as function of time |
| AUMC | area under the first moment of the concentration–time curve |
| bbb | blood–brain barrier |
| BCL | B-cell lymphoma |
| BCNU | <i>N,N'</i> -bis(2-chloroethyl)nitrosourea, carmustine |
| bp | boiling point |
| CDK | cyclin-dependent kinases |
| CETP | cholesteryl ester transfer protein |
| CCK | cholecystokinin |
| CETP | cholesteryl ester transfer protein |
| CGRP | calcitonin-gene-related peptide |
| CL | clearance in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1} = \text{dose/AUC}$; amount of plasma that is freed of the drug in a given time; $\text{CL} = \ln 2 \times (V/t_{1/2})$ |
| CNDAC | 1-(2-C-cyano-2-deoxy- β -D-arabinopentofuranosyl)cytosine |
| CNS | central nervous system |
| COMT | catechol-O-methyltransferase |
| COX | cyclooxygenase, enzyme involved in the conversion of arachidonic acid into prostaglandines |
| CPIB | <i>p</i> -chlorophenoxyisobutyric acid |
| CYP | cytochrome P450, group of hepatic enzymes that mediate oxidative metabolism |
| DMPK | drug metabolism and pharmacokinetics |
| DPPIV | dipeptidylpeptidase IV |
| EMA | European Medicines Agency |
| F | oral bioavailability; $\text{AUC (oral dose)}/\text{AUC (iv dose)}$ |
| FDA | Food and Drug Administration |
| GABA | γ -aminobutyric acid, central neurotransmitter |
| GI | gastrointestinal |

| | |
|-------------------|--|
| GLP-1 | glucagon-like peptide 1 |
| GnRH | gonadotropin-releasing hormone, also called LHRH |
| GPCR | G-protein coupled receptor |
| HCV | hepatitis C virus |
| hERG | human ether-à-go-go related gene |
| HIV | human immunodeficiency virus |
| HMG CoA reductase | 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase, enzyme involved in the biosynthesis of cholesterol |
| 5-HT | 5-hydroxytryptamine, serotonin |
| im | intramuscular |
| ip | intraperitoneal |
| iv | intravenous |
| LH | luteinizing hormone |
| LHRH | luteinizing-hormone-releasing hormone, also called <i>GnRH</i> |
| $\log P$ | log of partition coefficient of drug in a two-phase system octanol/water |
| $\Delta \log P$ | $\log P$ (octanol/water) – $\log P$ (cyclohexane/water) |
| MAO | monoamine oxidase |
| MAP | mitogen-activated protein |
| MEK | mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase |
| mp | melting point |
| MRT | mean residence time = AUMC/AUC |
| Mwt | molecular weight |
| nd | not determined |
| NF- κ B | nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells |
| NK | neurokinin |
| NMDA | N-methyl D-aspartic acid |
| NSAID | nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drug |
| PARP | poly(ADP-ribose)polymerase |
| pb | extent to which drug is bound to plasma proteins |
| PDE | phosphodiesterase |
| P-gp | P-glycoprotein, a 170 kDa protein encoded by the multidrug resistance gene 1, which pumps drugs out of the resistant cells |
| PK | pharmacokinetic(s) |
| po | per os, oral |
| PSA | polar surface area |
| PPAR- γ | peroxisome-proliferator-activated receptor γ |
| QT | interval time for both the ventricular depolarization and repolarization |
| R&D | research and development |
| SAR | structure activity relationship |
| sc | subcutaneous |
| SSRI | selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor |
| $t_{1/2}$ | plasma half-life of unchanged drug after oral administration to humans |
| ur | fraction of orally dosed drug being excreted unchanged in urine |
| V | volume of distribution = $MRT \times CL$ |
| VEGF | vascular endothelial growth factor |

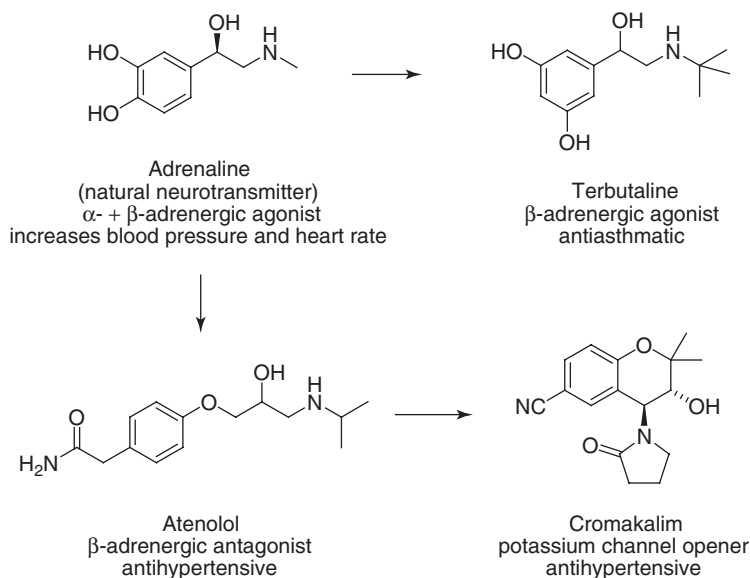
Part I

Introduction

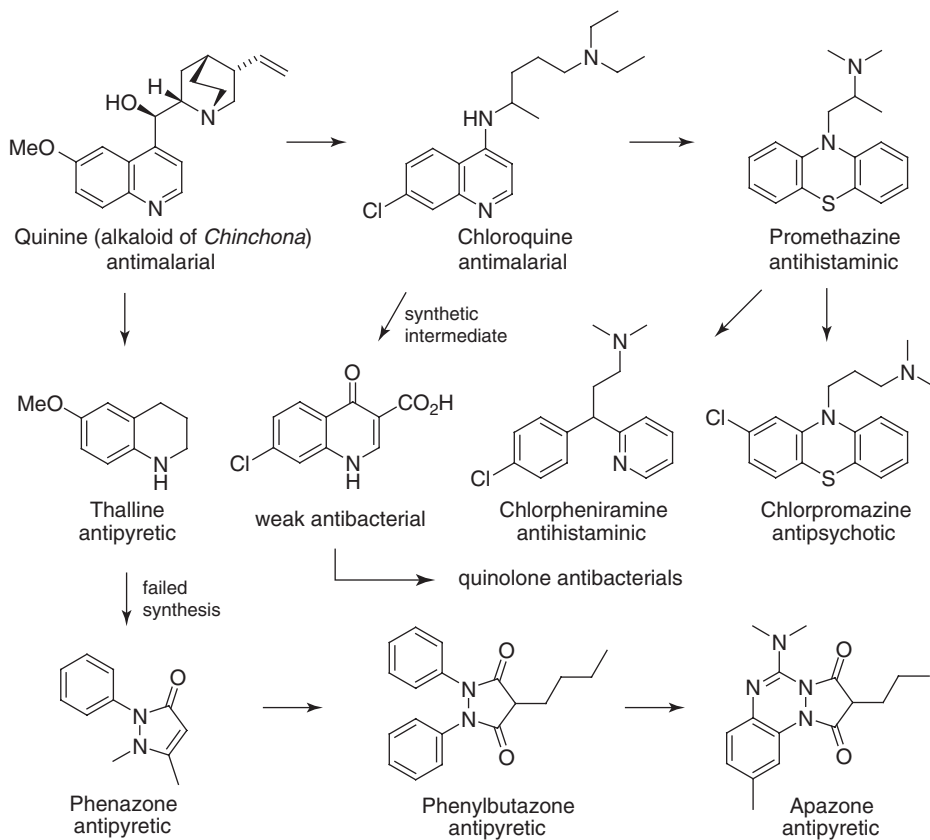
1

The Drug Discovery Process

Drugs are compounds that interact selectively with certain proteins in the human body and, thereby, suppress or activate biochemical pathways or signal transmission. Although the structures of modern drugs hardly allow to guess their origins, these were mostly natural products, discovered empirically, and used for centuries [1]. While synthesizing and evaluating new structural analogs of known hormones or natural drugs, new therapeutic applications often emerged. A fruitful starting point for the development of new drugs has in fact often been an old drug [2]. Illustrative examples of “drug evolution” are shown in Scheme 1.1.



Scheme 1.1 Examples of the development of new drugs from old drugs.



Scheme 1.1 (Continued).

To initiate a drug discovery program with hormones, natural products, or old drugs as leads has a number of advantages: the biochemical concept is already proven (the compound “works”), the target is “druggable,” and, importantly, the lead structure has acceptable or at least promising PK/ADME (pharmacokinetics/absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion) properties; otherwise, it would not work.

High-throughput screening of compound collections only rarely provides leads for new drugs [3]. Notable exceptions include the dihydropyridine calcium channel blockers, benzodiazepines, and sulfonamide antibacterials. These important drug classes resulted from testing drug-unrelated chemicals.

New proteins are constantly being discovered, and many of them are potential targets for therapeutic intervention. It must be kept in mind, though, that only few drugs have been successfully developed from scratch, starting with a biochemical hypothesis. The odds for succeeding are higher with a lead that works *in vivo* or by optimizing or exploiting a side effect of an old drug.

Today, the development of a new drug usually comprises the following stages:

1) **Discovery**

A target protein is selected, for example a receptor or an enzyme. If no lead structure is available, high-throughput screening of suitable, leadlike compounds may yield some weak ligands (hits). Systematic structural modification of these, supported by *in vitro* assays, may provide a lead, that is, a compound with an unambiguous dose–response relationship at the target protein. Further structural modifications aim at improving potency at the target, selectivity (low affinity to other proteins), water solubility, pharmacokinetics (PK, oral bioavailability, half-life, CNS penetration, etc.), therapeutic index (LD_{50}/ED_{50}), and general ADMET properties (absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity). In addition to *in vitro* assays, the medicinal chemist will need guidance by more time- and compound-consuming *in vivo* pharmacology.

2) **Preclinical development**

Once a development candidate has been chosen, the following steps will be initiated: chemical scale-up of the selected compound, formulation, stability studies, more detailed metabolic, toxicological, and PK studies (only in animals, typically rodents, dogs, pigs, or primates).

3) **Clinical development**

| | |
|-----------|---|
| Phase I | Healthy volunteers; determination of the suitable dose for humans |
| Phase II | First studies with a small group of patients |
| Phase III | Extended clinical trials |

Thus, the fateful selection of a development candidate, which will either fail or succeed during the expensive preclinical or clinical development, is already taken in the discovery phase. Success in drug development is, therefore, primarily dependent on the medicinal chemist, on his ability to design and prepare the compound with the desired biological properties. No matter how hardworking and talented the members of the preclinical and clinical development team are, if the medicinal chemist has not delivered the right compound, the whole project will fail. And the later the recognition of the failure, the larger the costs.

Thus, pharmaceutical companies should allocate significant resources to the hiring and training of their medicinal chemists.

1.1

Pharmacokinetics–Structure Relationship

During the discovery phase of a new drug, two different, mutually independent sets of properties of the compound must be optimized: (i) potency and selectivity at the

target protein and (ii) ADME and toxicity. The most critical ADME/PK parameters are as follows:

- **Plasma half-life ($t_{1/2}$):** The time required for the plasma concentration of a drug to drop by 50%. A constant half-life means that the rate of elimination of a drug is a linear function of its concentration (first order kinetics). This is never exactly the case, and $t_{1/2}$ will usually increase as the concentration of the drug declines.
- **Oral bioavailability (F):** The fraction of a drug that reaches systemic circulation after oral dosing. Oral bioavailability is determined by dividing the area under the curve (AUC) for an oral dose by the AUC of the same dose given intravenously. A low F means that either the drug is not absorbed from the gastrointestinal (GI) tract or that it undergoes extensive first-pass metabolism in the liver.
- **Plasma protein binding (pb):** Hydrophobic compounds will bind unspecifically to any hydrophobic site of a protein. For this reason, high-throughput screening often yields hydrophobic hits (which are difficult to optimize and should be abandoned). Plasma proteins, such as albumin or α -glycoproteins, may also bind to drugs and thereby reduce their free fraction in plasma, their renal excretion, their ability to cross membranes (also the blood–brain barrier (bbb)), and their interaction with other proteins (metabolizing enzymes, the target protein). Binding to plasma proteins also prevents highly insoluble compounds from precipitating upon iv dosing and helps to distribute such drugs throughout the body.

The half-life of peptides may be increased by preventing their renal excretion through enhanced binding to albumin. This can be achieved by acylating the peptide with fatty acids or other plasma protein binding compounds.

Plasma protein binding is usually determined by equilibrium dialysis or ultrafiltration. Both techniques exploit the ability of certain membranes to be permeable to small molecules but not to proteins or protein-bound small molecules. The clinical relevance of plasma protein binding has been questioned [4].

- **Volume of distribution (V):** Amount of drug in the body divided by its plasma concentration. The volume of distribution is the volume of solvent in which the dose would have to be dissolved to reach the observed plasma concentration. Compounds with small volumes of distribution (i.e., high plasma concentration) are often hydrophilic or negatively charged molecules that do not diffuse effectively into muscle and adipose tissue. Compounds strongly bound to plasma proteins will show small volumes of distribution as well. Hydrophobic and/or positively charged molecules, however, readily dissolve in fat and interact strongly with the negatively charged cell surfaces (phospholipids) and, often, have large volumes of distribution (i.e., low plasma concentrations). Experimental and computational methods have been developed to estimate the volume of distribution in humans [5].

The typical volumes of body fluids are as follows:

| | |
|---------------------|------------------------------|
| Plasma | 0.04–0.06 l kg ⁻¹ |
| Blood | 0.07 l kg ⁻¹ |
| Extracellular fluid | 0.15 l kg ⁻¹ |
| Total body water | 0.5 l kg ⁻¹ |

The “ideal” volume of distribution depends on the targeted half-life and pharmacological activity. For antibiotics or antivirals directed toward intracellular pathogens, a high tissue distribution (large volume of distribution) would be desirable. For short-acting anesthetics or antiarrhythmics or for compounds with a low safety margin, smaller volumes of distribution may enable a better control of drug plasma levels.

- **Clearance (CL):** The rate at which plasma is freed of drug, the remainder of the drug diluting into the freed volume. If a constant concentration C of a drug is to be attained, the infusion rate must be $CL \times C$. CL is related to other PK parameters: $CL = \text{dose}/AUC = \ln 2 \times (V/t_{1/2})$. The liver blood flow in humans is about 25 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹.

With the aid of high-throughput *in vitro* assays, potency and selectivity at a given target protein can often be rapidly attained. The most promising strategy for ligand optimization is to start with a small, hydrophilic (i.e., leadlike, *not* druglike) compound identified by screening leadlike compounds at high concentrations (leads are usually smaller, more hydrophilic, and less complex than drugs and show lower affinity to proteins). Then, potency and selectivity is enhanced by systematically introducing lipophilic groups of different shapes at various positions of the hit [6]. Numerous examples of such optimizations have been reported; three examples are shown below (Scheme 1.2 [6c, 7], see also Chapter 72; discovery of losartan).

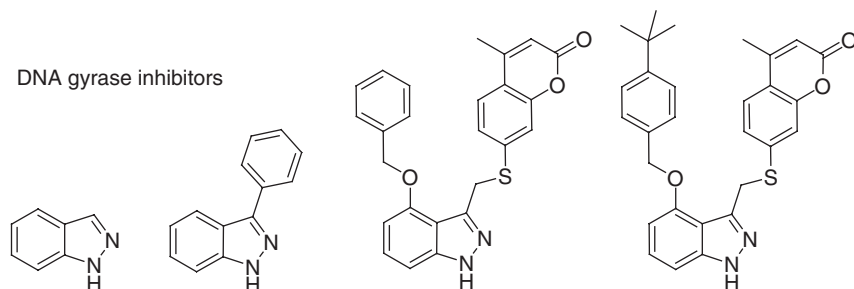
Unfortunately, the structure–activity relationship (SAR) resulting from such examples is of little use for medicinal chemists, as these only hold for specific target proteins and lack general applicability.

Far fewer examples have been reported of the optimization of PK and ADME because this requires large amounts of compound and tedious, expensive *in vivo* assays. Because few compounds reach the clinic, human data are scarce.

The ADME properties of xenobiotics are always determined by their interaction with the same set of proteins. Therefore, the study of PK–structure relationships should provide the medicinal chemist with valuable general guidelines for the optimization of leads. Structural features that strongly modulate ADME will always do so, no matter what the target protein of the drug might be.

Therefore, a thorough understanding of ADME– and PK–structure relationships should greatly facilitate the design of high-quality development candidates.

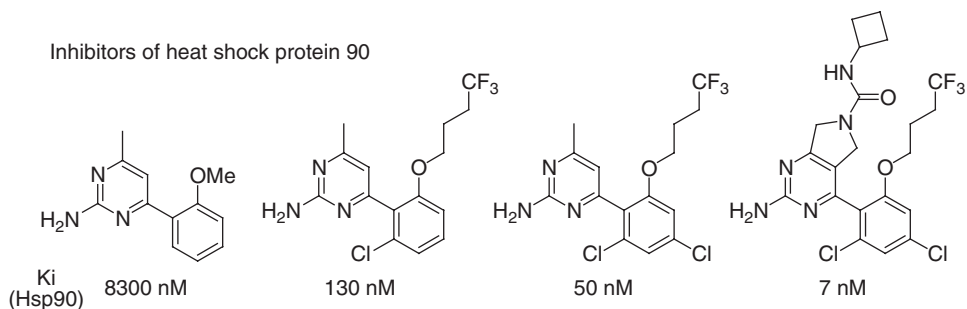
DNA gyrase inhibitors



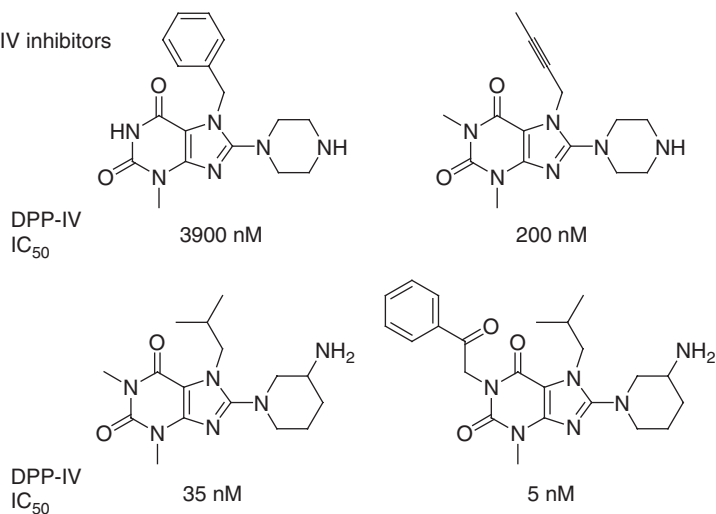
Maximal noneffective concentration:

>250 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ 8 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ 0.25 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ 0.03 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ($K_D = 10 \text{ mM}$)

Inhibitors of heat shock protein 90



DPP-IV inhibitors

**Scheme 1.2** Examples of the enhancement of binding affinity of small molecules to specific proteins.

1.2

The Future of Small-Molecule Drugs

The number of new drugs reaching the market has steadily declined in recent decades, despite steeply increasing R&D expenditures. Thus, while 53 new molecular entities were approved by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in 1996, only 17 attained approval in 2007. Moreover, many “new drugs” are not really new but just resolved racemates, metabolites, prodrugs, or new formulations of older drugs. Thus, the proton pump inhibitor nexium, which ranged among the top 10 best-selling drugs worldwide in 2006, is just resolved omeprazole, launched 1988, and thus no true innovation.

The reasons for this decline in productivity are manifold:

- 1) Because we have gained a deep understanding of biochemistry and pharmacology, many drug discovery programs start with a target protein and a hypothetical biochemical mechanism. This requires the development of a potent, selective ligand before any proof-of-principle is possible. Because of the high complexity and redundancy of biochemical pathways, however, most hypothetical therapeutic principles will not work in animals.
- 2) Instead of testing compounds directly in animals, we rely too much on *in vitro* assays. Earlier, the discovery of new drugs was mainly based on *in vivo* assays, as only few *in vitro* assays were available. An *in vivo* assay will only yield a positive result if compounds are sufficiently soluble and lipophilic to reach the target protein and are neither metabolized too rapidly nor removed by active transport mechanisms and if the whole therapeutic concept works. Toxicity and unwanted side effects will also be rapidly recognized in an *in vivo* assay. Thus, by testing compounds directly in animals, efficacy data and a large amount of additional information are obtained. In fact, many older drugs were successfully launched before their biochemical mode of action was understood, and many successful drugs, for example, neuroleptics such as top-selling olanzapine or aripiprazole are highly unselective and would probably have been discarded by modern screening plans.

To limit oneself to *in vitro* assays or to neglect disappointing *in vivo* results (“a more potent compound should do it”) can quickly cost a lot of time, which may have been spent on a more promising project. If a compound cannot reach its target or if the underlying biochemical hypothesis is flawed, an increase in potency or selectivity will not do the job.

- 3) Advances in molecular modeling and the availability of X-ray structural analyses of proteins cocrystallized with small ligands have ignited further hopes for “*in silico*” drug discovery. Results up to now have mostly been disappointing. Molecular modeling may be a useful source of inspiration for medicinal chemists and has on occasions succeeded to improve potency and selectivity of a ligand, but the large number of failures remains unreported [8]. Although proteins are flexible and readily change their conformation and adapt to new ligands, most current molecular modeling packages keep the protein

structure fixed while docking new ligands [9] and do not automatically include water or ions in the docking process [10]. Even if faster computers and more sophisticated software would overcome these limitations, that would not be sufficient. The prediction of solubility, ADME properties, and chemical stability would also be required [11]. Progress in this field is rapid, but there is still a long way to reliable *in silico* drug development.

- 4) Development time and costs have increased significantly, because more potential side effects of drugs are continuously being discovered, requiring the identification of much more selective compounds than earlier. While the discovery of paroxetine (1992, Ferrosan) only required the synthesis and testing of ~130 compounds to optimize few parameters, today much larger numbers of compounds are prepared in most discovery projects because a larger number of parameters must be optimized. Between identification of a drug and FDA approval, long development times are often required: taxol, 1971–1992; omeprazole, 1979–1988; fluoxetine, 1972–1985 [12]. The normal time of patent protection (20 years) is, therefore, inadequate for drugs. Unless the time of patent protection for drugs is extended, prices of new drugs will continue skyrocketing.
- 5) The advent of parallel synthesis in the mid-1990s has enabled medicinal chemists to prepare many compounds quickly, using unsophisticated chemistry. Little time is left, however, to consider test results carefully and to design and prepare the right compound, no matter how difficult or automatable its synthesis. Despite the large numbers of test compounds prepared, the output of new drugs keeps falling.
- 6) Computers have invaded our offices and laboratories. Instead of training their key skills, chemists and technicians are wasting their time learning how to use databases, virtual screening software, electronic laboratory journals, and trying to keep up with the ever-growing flood of irrelevant emails. In some companies, chemists and technicians are even burdened with accounting tasks and Six Sigma drills. With all these distractions, no sustained focus is possible any longer, and we are losing our expertise in classical medicinal chemistry and organic synthesis. Today, too few hours are spent in front of the hood, and too few experiments are performed [13].

In their essay “The role of the medicinal chemist in drug discovery – then and now” [14], Lombardino and Lowe suggest that the efficiency of drug discovery may be improved by (i) performing more *in vivo* assays earlier in the projects; (ii) by including in each discovery team a “drug champion,” that is, an older, experienced scientist to provide historical perspective (“institutional memory”) and background information (this book can help); and (iii) by continuous training of young medicinal chemists. I would also propose a return to less molecular modeling, less software but more thinking instead, and less parallel synthesis, in particular during the lead optimization phase, where not chemistry but only structure–property relationships should be the driving force of the project.

For a number of devastating diseases (cancer, multiple sclerosis, bacterial infections with antibiotic-resistant strains, Alzheimer’s disease, etc.), no cure is

available today. Governmental “regulation” of drug prices is forcing pharmaceutical companies to focus only on high-margin areas but will ultimately preclude any commercial development of new drugs. If politicians believe that medical treatment must be free of charge then the government will also have to provide the new drugs. Only the taxpayer can be forced to finance loss-making ventures forever. However, do politicians really have incentives to improve and extend the life of pensioners even further?

The development of new drugs requires a huge and sustained effort and will only occur in a free society with strong economic incentives and a strong protection of individual property rights. As our democracies continue to degenerate toward socialistic kleptocracies, and governmental size, harassment, and plunder expand, the number of new innovative drugs will keep shrinking [15].

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2

Lead Optimization

The development of a new drug is an iterative process in which a hit or lead is systematically modified until a compound with all the desired biological properties is found. After initial identification of a weakly active substance, the first properties to be improved are usually potency and selectivity at the target protein. Such optimization is often quite straightforward because it only requires *in vitro* assays, which can be performed quickly and for a large number of compounds.

While developing a drug, however, most time is often spent with the improvement of pharmacokinetic (PK) parameters of a lead: its oral bioavailability (*F*), plasma half-life ($t_{1/2}$), and ability to cross the blood–brain barrier (bbb; central nervous system (CNS) drugs only). Moreover, any new drug should ideally neither inhibit nor induce liver enzymes (cytochrome *P*450 (CYP)), be a *P*-glycoprotein (*P*-gp) substrate, or interact with human ether-à-go-go related gene (hERG). The optimization of PK parameters is, unfortunately, much slower than the optimization of *in vitro* potency and selectivity because it requires *in vivo* assays and larger amounts of substance.

Because the potency and selectivity of leads is often enhanced with additional lipophilic groups, lead structures tend to become too large and too lipophilic. This may be recognized late because potency and selectivity are usually optimized *in vitro*, where poor solubility is only a minor issue. However, poor solubility is an important reason for the failure of development candidates.

To increase the chances of success, some simple rules of thumb have been proposed to estimate whether a compound is likely to have acceptable absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity (ADMET) parameters. One is the famous “rule of five,” which recommends a molecular weight $<500 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$, a $\log P < 5$, a number of H-bond donors (acidic X–H groups) < 5 , and less than 10 hydrogen bond acceptors [1]. Other authors recommend even lower molecular weights (e.g., $<400 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) and $\log P$ values < 4 [2]. A glance at the tables in later sections of this book confirms that most drugs, in particular orally available drugs, indeed lie within a rather narrow range of molecular weights and $\log P$ values [3]. Interestingly, drug candidates with one or more sp^3 -hybridized carbon atoms show a higher success rate than “flat” molecules, which may be due to the low solubility of purely aromatic compounds [4].

There are many successful drugs that do not conform to the general recommendations. For instance, antibacterials are often heavy molecules with

a large polar surface area (PSA) [5]. Antibacterials must overcome the *bacterial* cell membranes and defense mechanisms, which entails some special physicochemical requirements. When searching for new antibiotics, antifungals, or antiseptics, it may not be a good choice to screen “general-purpose” compound libraries biased toward nonantibiotics.

2.1

What Limits/Reduces Oral Bioavailability?

Oral bioavailability F is defined as the fraction of an orally administered drug reaching systemic circulation. It can be determined by dividing the area under the curve (AUC, plot of concentration vs time) of an oral dose by the AUC of the same dose given intravenously. F depends on the extent to which the drug is absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract and on the extent to which it is destroyed during first-pass metabolism and excreted into the intestinal tract in the bile. Because the function of the stomach is mainly digestive and its surface is small, drugs are usually not absorbed from the stomach but from the intestine.

The gastrointestinal (GI) tract may be viewed as a large lipophilic membrane with small, hydrophilic pores with a diameter of 3–8 Å. Critical parameters for absorption of compounds from the gut are the PSA, ionization, molecular weight, solubility, energy required for desolvation from water (i.e., hydrogen bonding), and the number of rotatable bonds [6].

Absorption from the intestine starts to drop at a $\text{PSA} > 60 \text{ \AA}^2$ and becomes negligible at a $\text{PSA} > 140 \text{ \AA}^2$. Charged or hydrophilic compounds are only efficiently absorbed if their molecular weight is $< 150\text{--}200 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ (the lower the better) or if the molecules are long and thin or by means of an active transport mechanism. Lipophilic, uncharged compounds are more readily absorbed but must be soluble in water to a certain extent, in order to come into close contact with the epithelium of the intestine. Large, lipophilic molecules of low solubility or polymers (no matter if soluble or not) are not significantly absorbed from the gut. It has been suggested that a low number of rotatable bonds may also be conducive to better oral bioavailability [7].

Interestingly, molecules with “intramolecular” charge separation, such as mesoionic compounds (e.g., molsidomine), nitro compounds, pyridine *N*-oxides, azides, and so on, are much more lipophilic than organic cations or anions and are usually well absorbed.

In contrast to the stomach (pH 1–3), the content of the intestine is almost neutral (pH 5–8). Strong acids (sulfonic or phosphonic acids and phosphates) or strong bases (amidines and guanidines) can only be absorbed if their molecular weight is sufficiently low. Carboxylic acids can be absorbed from the stomach but are mainly absorbed from the intestine.

Before reaching systemic circulation, compounds absorbed from the GI tract are directed by the portal vein to the liver, where CYP enzymes catalyze the hydroxylation and oxidation of lipophilic xenobiotics (phase I biotransformations),

to speed up their renal excretion. Hydroxylation may be followed by conjugation to glucuronic acid, amino acids, or sulfate (phase II biotransformations), which facilitates further the excretion in urine. High oral bioavailability can only be attained if the drug is resistant to CYP-mediated chemical transformations. This can be achieved either by fine-tuning the $\log P$ and the PSA or by blocking hydroxylation, for example, by fluorination or introduction of heteroatoms at or near the site of hydroxylation. Alternatively, a drug subject to high first-pass metabolism may be formulated in combination with a compound that blocks liver metabolism (e.g., ritonavir).

Charged compounds formed in the liver are often excreted into the intestine in the bile, reabsorbed from the intestine, and finally, excreted in the urine. Biliary or enterohepatic recirculation refers to a repetitive excretion of a drug into the bile, followed by reabsorption from the small intestine.

Drugs for oral dosing need not be 100% orally bioavailable. High first-pass metabolism may be acceptable for an oral drug if its metabolites are safe and efficiently excreted. Low bioavailability owing to extensive first-pass metabolism may, however, cause a high interindividual variability of F , as well as a high dependency of F on additional factors (food, age, CYP inhibitors/inducers, liver or other diseases). Such drugs are difficult to dose correctly.

2.2

What Limits/Reduces Plasma Half-Life?

Blood is constantly being filtered by the kidneys, at a rate of 7.5 l h^{-1} . Thereby, compounds with molecular weights $<50\,000 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ are excreted and then partly reabsorbed again into plasma. In addition to passive glomerular filtration, organic cations and organic anions may be renally excreted by an active transport mechanism ("active tubular secretion"). Plasma proteins and the protein-bound fraction of a drug are not eliminated by renal filtration.

The extent to which drugs are reabsorbed varies strongly. Charged organic molecules are generally reabsorbed to a lesser extent than neutral, lipophilic compounds. The only generally applicable strategy to contain renal excretion of a drug is to enhance its binding to plasma proteins or its volume of distribution.

Enzymatic activity capable of destroying a drug is mainly located in the liver, gut, kidneys, lung, and skin. In addition to CYP enzymes, drugs will be exposed to alcohol dehydrogenase, various oxidases and reductases, esterases, phosphatases, and proteases. Moreover, blood contains strong nucleophiles (glutathione, cysteine; these are further activated enzymatically, e.g., by glutathione transferases), an electrophilic methylating reagent (*S*-adenosylmethionine), and the electrophilic acetylating reagent acetyl-CoA (in combination with acetyl transferases). All these enzymes and reagents may inactivate a drug or convert a prodrug into the active drug.

The liver receives about 75% of its blood supply from the portal vein and 25% from the systemic circulation. Accordingly, parenteral administration of a drug

circumvents to a large extent oxidative enzymatic degradation by the liver. CYP inhibition or induction is also less critical for parenterally dosed compounds.

2.3

How to Improve bbb-Penetration?

The bbb is an additional protection of the CNS from potentially dangerous xenobiotics. Moreover, many drugs are actively excreted from the CNS by P-gp, the product of the multidrug resistance gene, which acts as an active efflux system for a variety of drugs [8].

The bbb is essentially lipophilic and impermeable to large molecules. Only uncharged, lipophilic compounds ($\log P > 0$) with a molecular weight $< 400\text{--}600\text{ g mol}^{-1}$ and few rotatable bonds can diffuse into the CNS. Hydrogen-bonding ability is highly detrimental for bbb passage, and as a rule of thumb, drugs with a $\text{PSA} > 40\text{ \AA}^2$ will not enter the CNS to any significant extent [9]. Even a single carbonyl group (e.g., a ketone, amide, urea, carbamate, etc.) will strongly reduce the ability of a drug to cross the bbb. Strong binding to plasma proteins, which correlates with the $\log P$, may also reduce bbb penetration [10]. Nutrients reach the CNS by means of substrate-specific carriers and active transport mechanisms.

2.4

How to Avoid CYP Inhibition/Induction?

A number of models of the various CYP enzymes have been generated [11] and may be used to predict if a compound is likely to interact strongly with one or more of these enzymes. There is, however, no reliable method to ascertain if the compound will just be a substrate or an inhibitor of the enzyme. This must usually be determined empirically during lead optimization [12].

Molecules capable of strongly coordinating to iron cations (imidazoles and pyridines) may also be CYP inhibitors. In such instances, affinity to CYP can sometimes be lowered by sterically shielding the iron binding site in the inhibitor.

Metabolically resistant molecules can be CYP inducers. For instance, the expression and activity of rat liver enzymes is strongly enhanced if the rat is treated with chlorinated biphenyls. Hence, stabilization of a lead to block metabolic transformations may backfire and should not be exaggerated. Drugs with too long half-lives are, moreover, difficult to dose and may lead to dangerous accumulation, above all in older patients.

Two famous examples of dietary CYP inhibition and induction are grapefruit and St. John's wort. Grapefruit and orange juice contain potent inhibitors of CYP3A4/5, which can cause extended half-lives and dangerously high plasma levels of drugs that are metabolized by CYP3A4/5. St. John's wort and other herbal extracts are CYP inducers and will generally shorten the half-life of many drugs, for example of contraceptives, causing unpleasant surprises here and there. Some

fruit juices can decrease the oral bioavailability of drugs as well (e.g., of celiprolol and fexofenadine) [13].

If a valuable lead is a potent CYP inhibitor/inducer or too hepatotoxic, a parenteral formulation may still be viable.

CYP inducers : barbiturates, carbamazepine, dexamethasone, efavirenz, ethanol, felbamate, growth hormone, isoniazid, moricizine, nevirapine, omeprazole, phenobarbital, phenytoin, prednisone, probenecid, rifampin, rifapentine, ritonavir, smoke, troglitazone, and vegetables;

CYP inhibitors : amiodarone, cimetidine, ciprofloxacin, clarithromycin, diltiazem, diphenhydramine, enoxacin, erythromycin, fluconazole, fluoxetine, fluvastatin, fluvoxamine, grapefruit, grepafloxacin, haloperidol, indinavir, itraconazole, ketoconazole, metronidazole, miconazole, nefazodone, paroxetine, quinidine, ritonavir, sertraline, sulfamethoxazole, thioridazine, ticlopidine, and verapamil.

2.5

How to Avoid Interaction with the Human Ether-à-go-go-Related Gene (hERG)?

It is known since long that some drugs can cause cardiac arrhythmias, but these are usually not life threatening. The long QT syndrome, however, may cause torsades de pointes, a ventricular tachyarrhythmia that can degenerate into ventricular fibrillation and sudden death by cardiac arrest.

The QT interval is the time for both the ventricular depolarization and repolarization. QT-prolonging drugs block potassium channels encoded by hERG. A number of drugs had to be withdrawn for causing prolonged QT syndrome while showing high affinity to hERG, for example, clobutinol, astemizole, grepafloxacin, cisapride, and terfenadine. The relationship between hERG affinity and QT prolongation is, however, not yet firmly established. Clemastine, for instance, has a high affinity to hERG (12 nM) but does not induce QT prolongation [14]. Grepafloxacin, on the other hand, which only binds to hERG with micromolar affinity [15], had to be withdrawn one year after launch following reports of severe QT prolongation.

Some SAR (structure–activity relationship) models for the hERG potassium channel have been published and may be used to gain some inspiration if hERG is a problem [16]. hERG counterscreens should be included in every lead optimization program.

2.6

How to Prevent Toxicity?

Strong electrophiles are often toxic or mutagenic because of covalent bond formation with proteins and nucleic acids. Moreover, many nonelectrophilic organic molecules may be converted into electrophilic metabolites in the human

body. This reactivity is difficult to predict and often emerges only during clinical trials or after launch.

Drugs may also be phototoxic, that is, sensitize the skin for UV absorption or induce photoallergy (the drug undergoes a photochemical transformation into an allergen). Molecules with suitable chromophores include the quinolone antibiotics, methoxsalen, hypericin, aromatic sulfonamides, tetracyclines, and phenothiazines.

Adverse drug reactions include the typical symptoms of overdosing (skin rashes, agranulocytosis, hepatotoxicity, and aplastic anemia), which are usually observed during preclinical development, and the less frequent, sometimes idiosyncratic reactions, which are first recognized once the drug has been widely marketed.

In the early 1990s, the main reason for stopping drug development was poor PK. By adding ADMET specialists to the discovery teams, this problem became less acute. Today, the major causes of failure during clinical trials and early withdrawal of drugs from the market are lack of efficacy and excessive toxicity [17]. Although toxicity in humans cannot be predicted, the success rate of drug candidates may be enhanced by avoiding substructures known to cause adverse drug reactions. These include electrophilic groups or groups susceptible to the formation of electrophilic metabolites (Table 2.1).

Many drugs contain the functional groups listed in Table 2.1 but do not cause adverse drug reactions because efficient detoxication pathways exist. Moreover, even compounds devoid of any critical functional group can be hepatotoxic (e.g., ximelagatran, Table 55.2). Nevertheless, the risk of excessive toxicity can be lowered by avoiding the groups shown in Table 2.1.

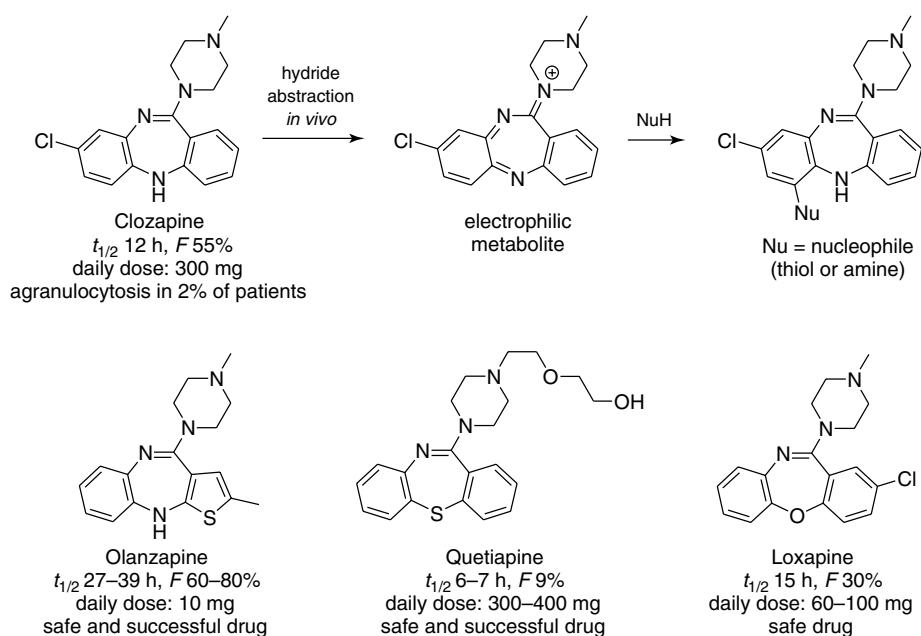
One crucial factor for drug safety is the dose: adverse drug reactions are rarely seen for drugs dosed below 20 mg per day. Thus, drug safety may be enhanced by increasing potency or by improving oral bioavailability.

One example of metabolic activation is the antiinflammatory sudoxicam (Table 63.1), which is metabolized to a hepatotoxic thiourea [18]. This transformation could be blocked by methylation of the thiazole ring. In the resulting meloxicam, the main metabolic path is hydroxylation and oxidation of this newly introduced methyl group.

Table 2.1 Functional groups prone to the formation of electrophilic metabolites [17a].

| | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|
| Haloalkanes | Hydroquinones | Imides |
| Alkenes | Catechols | Thioureas |
| Electron-poor alkenes | Aromatic thiols | Sulfonylureas |
| Alkynes | Cyclopropylamines | Formaldehyde acetals |
| Phenyl groups | Benzylamines | 3-Methylindoles |
| 4-Unsubstituted benzyl ethers | Hydrazines | 5-Hydroxyindoles |
| Ethoxybenzenes | Hydroxylamines | Unsubstituted furans |
| Bromoarenes | Azides | Unsubstituted thiophenes |
| Nitroarenes | Hydroxamic acids | Unsubstituted thiazoles |
| Anilines | Tetrahydropyridines | Unsubstituted oxazoles |
| Aminophenols | Formamides | Thiazolidinediones |

Two further examples of drugs that cause adverse drug reactions because of metabolic activation are clozapine and felbamate. Clozapine contains an electron-rich aniline substructure, which can be oxidized by hydride abstraction to yield an electrophilic, cationic *ortho*-quinone diimine (Scheme 2.1). This metabolite reacts with nucleophiles and can arylate nucleic acids or the thiol groups of vital proteins. A significant number of patients taking this drug develop agranulocytosis [19]. This metabolic activation is also possible in olanzapine but less problematic because of the 30-fold lower dosing of olanzapine. In the clozapine analogs quetiapine and loxapine, the stability toward oxidants was enhanced by replacing the aromatic NH group by S and O.

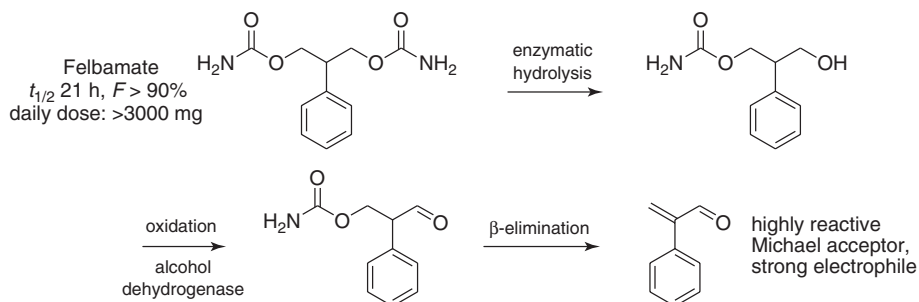


Scheme 2.1 Metabolic activation of clozapine.

The ability of a drug candidate to act as hydride donor should be easy to detect by treatment with a mild oxidant, such as benzoquinone. It would have been more difficult, however, to correctly predict the metabolic fate of felbamate.

Felbamate is an anticonvulsant bis-carbamate. Within a year of its launch in 1993, 34 cases of aplastic anemia and 23 cases of hepatotoxicity occurred, resulting in 18 deaths. This led to a severe restriction of the use of this drug.

The metabolic activation of felbamate proceeds via hydrolysis to a primary alcohol, followed by oxidation to an aldehyde (Scheme 2.2). Elimination to form an α,β -unsaturated aldehyde is particularly easy in this instance because the newly formed alkene is conjugated with the phenyl group. The resulting Michael acceptor, at the high doses required, led to the adverse drug reactions in patients [20].



Scheme 2.2 Metabolic activation of felbamate.

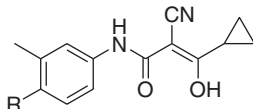
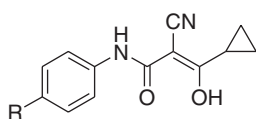
With *in vitro* assays, it is possible to predict toxicity with some precision, but false-positives and false-negatives are common [21]. Similarly, animal models do not reveal human poisons accurately. However, our analytical tools are becoming increasingly sensitive, and our knowledge on metabolic pathways is continuously growing. A better understanding of human metabolism and metabolism-dependent toxicity will lead to advanced toxicity models [22], which will improve our ability to exclude questionable compounds early during drug development.

2.7

Examples of PK-Optimization in Animals

2.7.1

Dihydroorotate Dehydrogenase Inhibitors

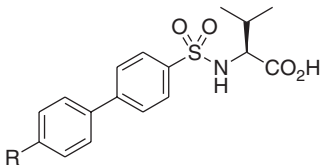
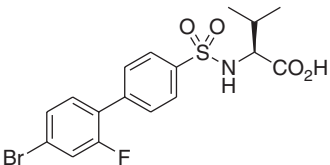


| R | $t_{1/2}$ (po, rat) | R | $t_{1/2}$ (po, rat) |
|--|---------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------|
| MeS- | <1 h | Cl- | 2 h |
| F ₃ CS- | 2 h | F ₃ C- | 4 h |
| F ₃ CS(=O)- | 3 h | Br- | 4 h |
| O ₂ N- | 4 h | F ₃ CO- | 4 h |
| NC- | 5 h | NC- | 6 h |
| MeC(=O)- | 6 h | F ₃ C-CF ₂ - | 10 h |
| F ₃ C- | 8 h | F ₃ CS- | 13 h |
| F ₃ CS(=O) ₂ - | 14 h | | |
| Br- | 20 h | | |
| Cl- | 22 h | | |
| F ₃ CO- | 22 h | | |
| 4-Cl(C ₆ H ₄)O- | 39 h | | |

Kuo, E.A. *et al.* (1996) Synthesis, structure–activity relationships, and pharmacokinetic properties of dihydroorotate dehydrogenase inhibitors: 2-cyano-3-cyclopropyl-3-hydroxy-*N*-[3'-methyl-4'-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl]propenamide and related compounds. *J. Med. Chem.*, **39**, 4608–4621.

2.7.2

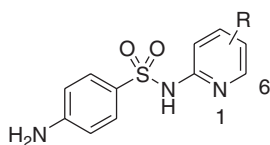
Matrix Metalloproteinase Inhibitors

|  | |  | |
|---|---------------------|---|---------------------|
| R | $t_{1/2}$ (rat, po) | R | $t_{1/2}$ (rat, po) |
| MeO- | 0.36 h | Cl- | 34.1 h |
| Me- | 0.40 h | F ₃ C- | 37.9 h |
| H- | 3.4 h | Br- | 43.6 h |
| NC- | 12.5 h | F- | 45.5 h |
| O ₂ N- | 19.5 h | | 117 h |

O'Brien, P.M. *et al.* (2000) Structure-activity relationships and pharmacokinetic analysis for a series of potent, systemically available biphenylsulfonamide matrix metalloproteinase inhibitors. *J. Med. Chem.*, **43**, 156–166.

2.7.3

Antibacterial Aminobenzenesulfonamides



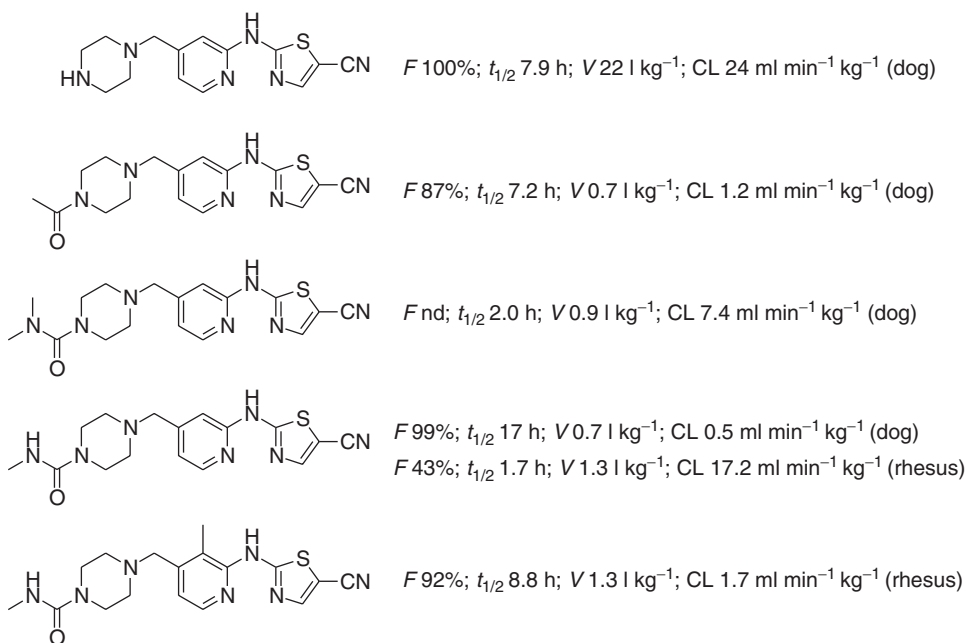
| R | $t_{1/2}$ (iv, rat) | R | $t_{1/2}$ (iv, rat) |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|
| 4-CH ₃ | 1.2 h | 5-CH ₃ | 2.4 h |
| 4,6-(CH ₃) ₂ | 1.2 h | 3-CH ₃ -5-Br | 8.2 h |
| 3-CH ₃ | 1.3 h | 3-CH ₃ -5-Cl | 8.2 h |
| 3-OCH ₃ | 1.3 h | 3-Cl | 8.7 h |
| 3-CN | 1.4 h | 5-NO ₂ | 16.5 h |
| 3-OEt | 1.4 h | 3,5-Cl ₂ | 21.7 h |
| H | 1.5 h | 3,5-Br ₂ | 21.7 h |
| 6-CH ₃ | 1.9 h | 5-Cl | 21.7 h |
| 5-N(CH ₃) ₂ | 2.1 h | 5-Br | 24.8 h |
| 3-CN-5-CH ₃ | 2.2 h | | |

Seydel, J.K., Trettin, D., and Cordes, H.P. (1980) Quantitative structure–pharmacokinetic relationships derived on antibacterial sulfonamides in rats and its comparison to quantitative structure–activity relationships. *J. Med. Chem.*, **23**, 607–613.

2.7.4

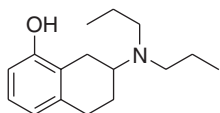
Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitors

Metabolism was the main route of drug elimination of this series of aminopyridines. The major route of metabolism in rat and rhesus monkey (but not in dogs) was N-glucuronidation at the aminopyridine. This biotransformation could be suppressed by introduction of an additional methyl group (last compound).

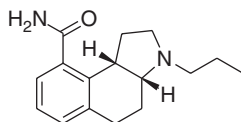


Bilodeau, M.T. *et al.* (2004) Potent *N*-(1,3-thiazol-2-yl)pyridin-2-amine vascular endothelial growth factor receptor tyrosine kinase inhibitors with excellent pharmacokinetics and low affinity for the hERG ion channel. *J. Med. Chem.*, **47**, 6363–6372.

2.7.5

5-HT_{1A} Agonists

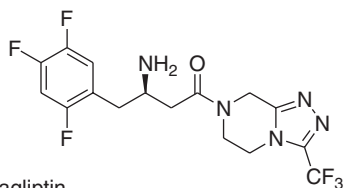
$t_{1/2}$ 60 min (rat)
 F 2.4% (rat)



$t_{1/2}$ 120 min (rat)
 F 46% (rat)

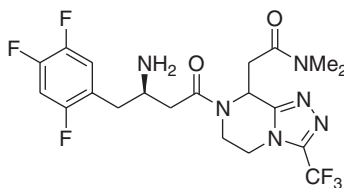
Lin, C. *et al.* (1993) Synthesis and biological activity of *cis*-(3aR)-(-)-2,3,3a,4,5,9b-hexahydro-3-propyl-1H-benz[e]indole-9-carboxamide: a potent and selective 5-HT_{1A} receptor agonist with good oral availability. *J. Med. Chem.*, **36**, 2208–2218.

2.7.6

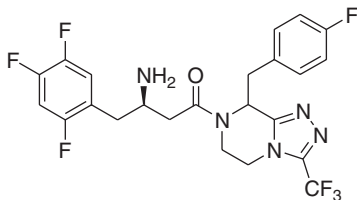
Dipeptidyl Peptidase IV Inhibitors; Structural Variations of Sitagliptin

Sitagliptin

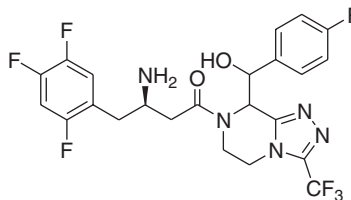
$t_{1/2}$ 1.7 h; F 76%; CL 60 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (rat)



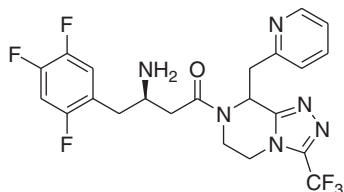
$t_{1/2}$ 2.7 h; F 9%; CL 87 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (rat)



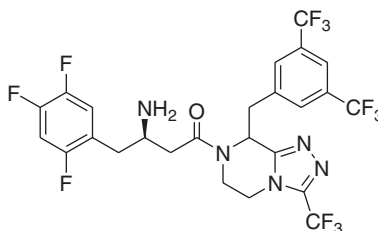
$t_{1/2}$ 1.5 h; F 76%; CL 29 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (rat)



$t_{1/2}$ 2.6 h; F 8%; CL 63 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (rat)



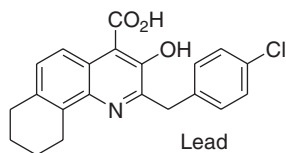
$t_{1/2}$ 1.9 h; F 9%; CL 94 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (rat)



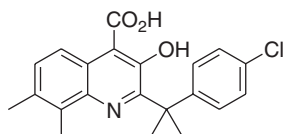
$t_{1/2}$ 4.1 h; F 19%; CL 50 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (rat)

Kim, D. *et al.* (2008) Discovery of potent and selective dipeptidyl peptidase IV inhibitors derived from β -aminoamides bearing substituted triazolopiperazines. *J. Med. Chem.*, **51**, 589–602.

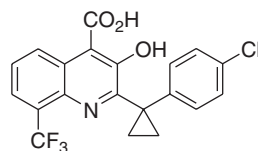
2.7.7

P-Selectin Inhibitors

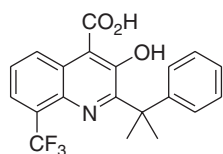
F 27%; CL 11 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (rat)



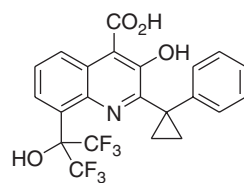
F 75%; CL 7 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (rat)



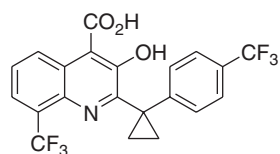
F 67%; CL 0.7 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (rat)



F 93%; CL 3.7 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (rat)



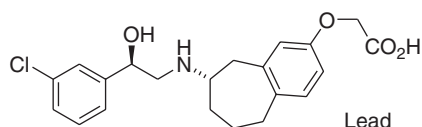
F 44%; CL 1 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (rat)



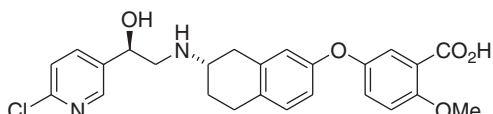
F 31%; CL 0.4 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (rat)

Huang, A. *et al.* (2010) Discovery of 2-[1-(4-chlorophenyl)cyclopropyl]-3-hydroxy-8-(trifluoromethyl)quinoline-4-carboxylic acid (PSI-421), a P-selectin inhibitor with improved pharmacokinetic properties and oral efficacy in models of vascular injury. *J. Med. Chem.*, **53**, 6003–6017.

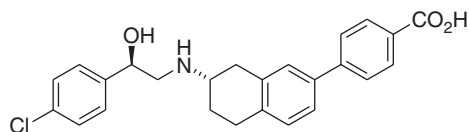
2.7.8

 β_3 -Adrenergic Agonists

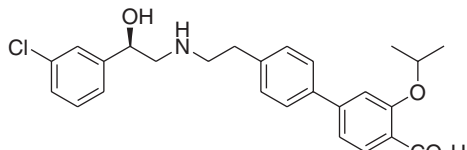
$t_{1/2}$ 2.3 h (iv); F 35%; CL 12 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (iv) (monkey)



$t_{1/2}$ 8.2 h (iv); F 29%; CL 16 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (iv) (monkey)



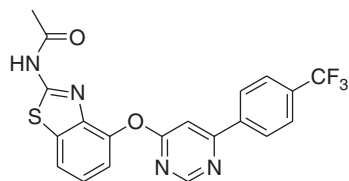
$t_{1/2}$ 7.7 h (iv); F 82%; CL 6.7 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (iv) (monkey)



$t_{1/2}$ 19 h (iv); F 83%; CL 0.9 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (iv) (monkey)

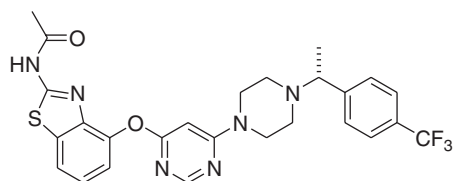
Imanishi, M. *et al.* (2008) Discovery of a novel series of benzoic acid derivatives as potent and selective human β_3 adrenergic receptor agonists with good oral bioavailability. *J. Med. Chem.*, **51**, 1925–1944 and 4804–4822.

2.7.9

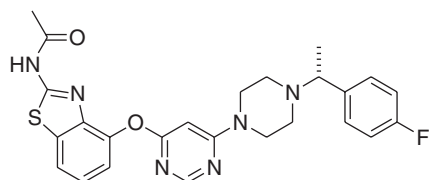
Vanilloid-1 Antagonists

Lead

$t_{1/2}$ 6.3 h (iv); F 32%; CL $3.2 \text{ ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$ (iv);
 V 1.6 l kg^{-1} ; (rat) half-life too long!



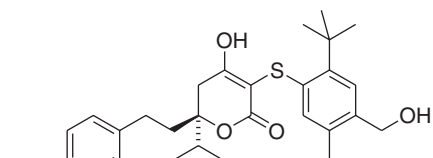
$t_{1/2}$ 2.7 h (iv); F 3%; CL $23 \text{ ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$ (iv);
 V 4.5 l kg^{-1} ; (rat)



$t_{1/2}$ 2.7 h (iv); F 51%; CL $13 \text{ ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$ (iv);
 V 2.8 l kg^{-1} ; (rat)

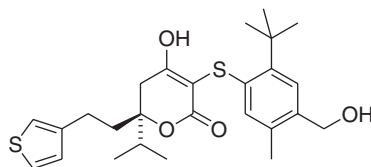
Wang, H. *et al.* (2007) Novel vanilloid receptor-1 antagonists: 3. The identification of a second-generation clinical candidate with improved physicochemical and pharmacokinetic properties. *J. Med. Chem.*, **50**, 3528–3539.

2.7.10

HIV Protease Inhibitors

Lead

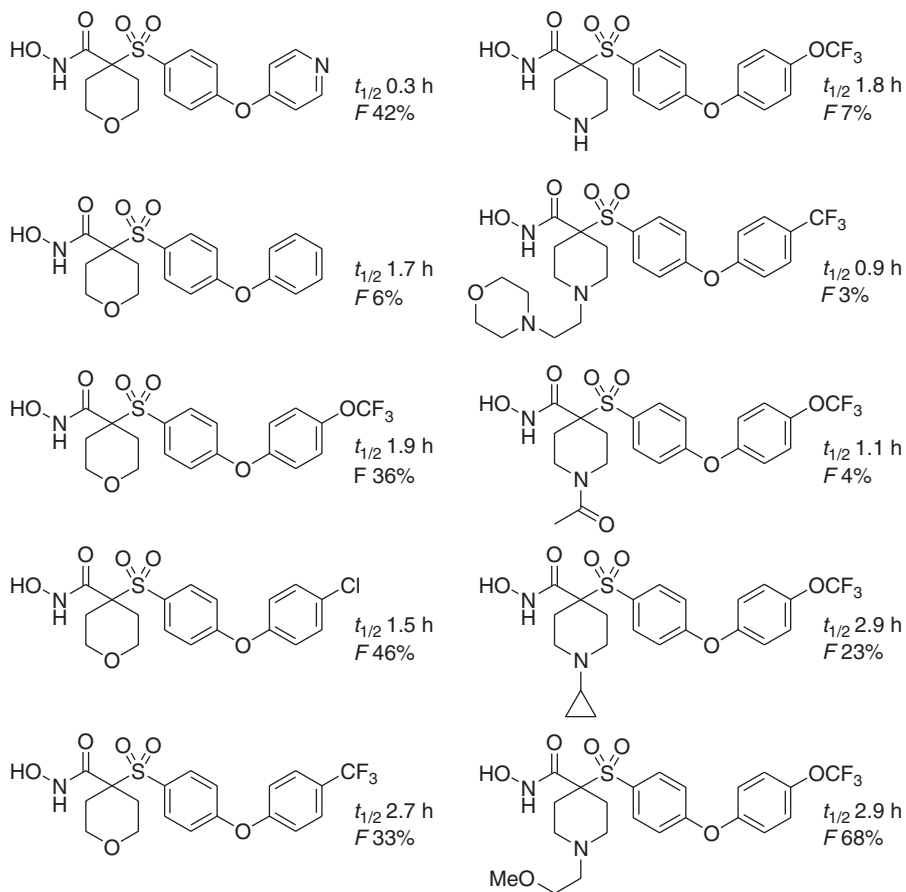
$t_{1/2}$ 1.2 h; F 33% (dog)



$t_{1/2}$ 5.4 h; F 88% (dog)

Hagen, S.E. *et al.* (2001) 4-Hydroxy-5,6-dihydropyrones as inhibitors of HIV protease: the effect of heterocyclic substituents at C-6 on antiviral potency and pharmacokinetic parameters. *J. Med. Chem.*, **44**, 2319–2332.

2.7.11

Matrix Metalloproteinase Inhibitors (Tested in Rats)

Becker, D.P. *et al.* (2010) Orally active MMP-1 sparing α -tetrahydropyranyl and α -piperidinyl sulfone matrix metalloproteinase (MMP) inhibitors with efficacy in cancer, arthritis, and cardiovascular disease. *J. Med. Chem.*, **53**, 6653–6680.

2.7.12

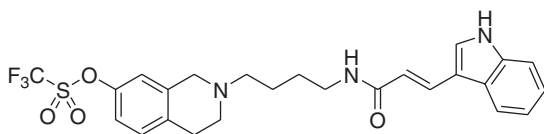
HIV Integrase Inhibitors

Both thiophene derivatives were potent in an enzymatic assay but too toxic and weak in a cellular assay. These problems could be solved by replacing the thienyl group by various aminomethyl groups.

Oc1nc2c(nc(=O)NCCc3ccc(F)cc3)c(O)c2nc1C4=CC=CC=S4Oc1nc2c(nc(=O)[nH]c2Cc3ccc(F)cc3)c(O)c1Cc4ccccc4CN(C)C1=NC(=C(O)C(=O)NCc2ccc(F)cc2)N=C1OOc1nc2c(nc(=O)NCCc3ccc(F)cc3)c(O)c2n1C4CCNCC4CN1CCOC1c2nc(=O)c(O)c(=O)n2NCc3ccc(F)cc3

Summa, V. *et al.* (2006) 4,5-Dihydroxypyrimidine carboxamides and N-alkyl-5-hydroxypyrimidinone carboxamides are potent, selective HIV integrase inhibitors with good pharmacokinetic profiles in preclinical species. *J. Med. Chem.*, **49**, 6646–6649.

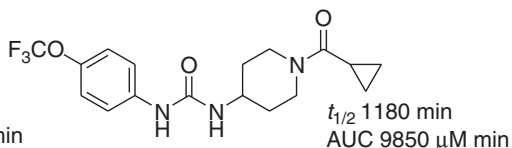
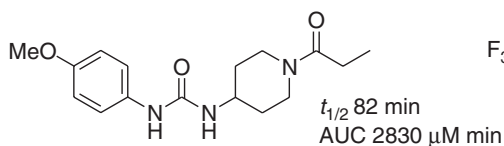
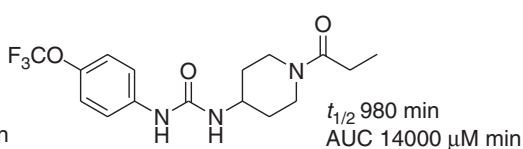
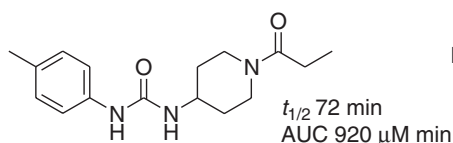
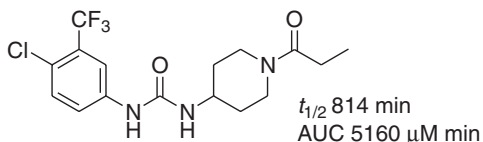
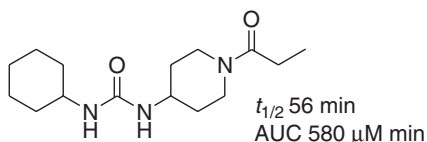
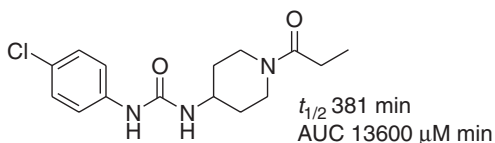
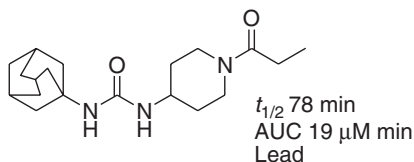
Dopamine D₃ Antagonists

CCN1CCc2ccc(C#N)cc2CC1[C@H]3CCCC[C@H]3NC(=O)c4c[nH]c5ccccc45C1=CC=C2C(=C1)N(C2)CC[C@H]3CCCC[C@H]3NC(=O)c4cnc5ccccc45

$t_{1/2}$ 2 h; F 43%; CL 19 ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ (rat)

Stemp, G. *et al.* (2000) Design and synthesis of *trans*-N-[4-[2-(6-cyano-1,2,3,4-tetrahydroisoquinolin-2-yl)ethyl]cyclohexyl]-4-quinolinecarboxamide (SB-277011): a potent and selective dopamine D3 receptor antagonist with high oral bioavailability and CNS penetration in the rat. *J. Med. Chem.*, **43**, 1878–1885.

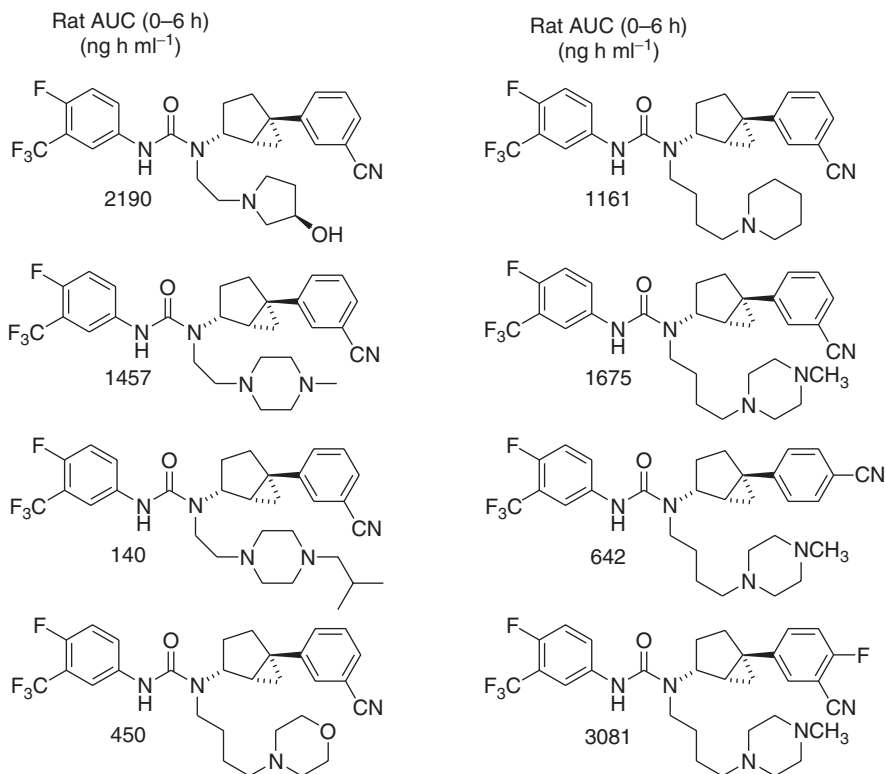
2.7.14

Inhibitors of Soluble Epoxide Hydrolase (Tested in Mice, po)

Rose, T.E., Morisseau, C., Liu, J.-Y., Inceoglu, B., Jones, P.D., Sanborn, J.R., and Hammock, B.D. (2010) 1-Aryl-3-(1-acylpiperidin-4-yl)urea inhibitors of human and murine soluble epoxide hydrolase: structure-activity relationships, pharmacokinetics, and reduction of inflammatory pain. *J. Med. Chem.*, **53**, 7067–7075.

2.7.15

Melanin-Concentrating Hormone Receptor-1 Antagonists



McBriar, M.D. *et al.* (2006) Discovery of orally efficacious melanin-concentrating hormone receptor-1 antagonists as antiobesity agents. Synthesis, SAR, and biological evaluation of bicyclo[3.1.0]hexyl ureas. *J. Med. Chem.*, **49**, 2294–2310.

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2. Gleeson, M.P. (2008) Generation of a set of simple, interpretable ADMET rules of thumb. *J. Med. Chem.*, **51**, 817–834.
3. Leeson, P.D. and Davis, A.M. (2004) Time-related differences in the physical property profiles of oral drugs. *J. Med. Chem.*, **47**, 6338–6348.
4. (a) Lovering, F., Bikker, J., and Humblet, C. (2009) Escape from flatland: increasing saturation as an approach to improving clinical success. *J. Med. Chem.*, **52**, 6752–6756;
(b) Wassvik, C.M., Holmén, A.G., Draheim, R., Artursson, P., and Bergström, C.A.S. (2008) Molecular characteristics for solid-state limited solubility. *J. Med. Chem.*, **51**, 3035–3039.

5. O'Shea, R. and Moser, H.E. (2008) Physicochemical properties of antibacterial compounds: implications for drug discovery. *J. Med. Chem.*, **51**, 2871–2878.
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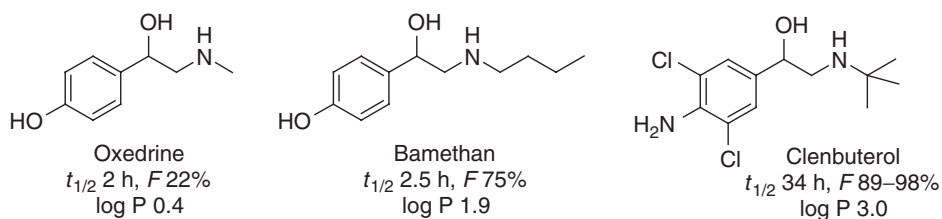
Part II

The Pharmacokinetic Properties of Compound Classes

3

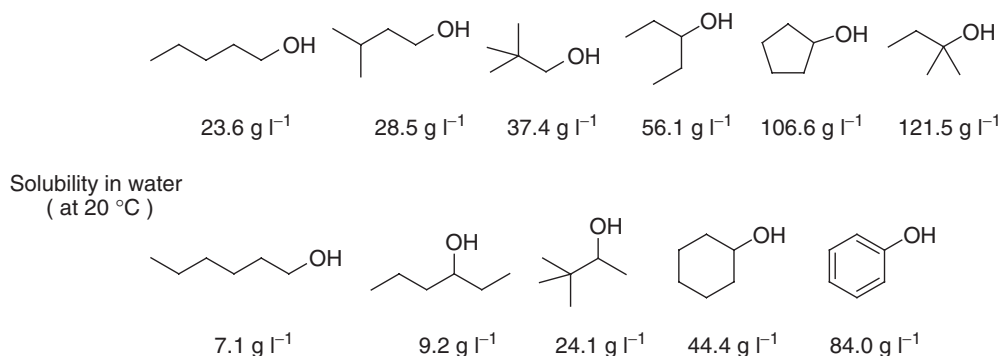
Alkanes

Alkyl groups are often introduced into leads to improve potency and selectivity, or to increase lipophilicity. If the lead is small and hydrophilic, alkyl groups may not only improve the affinity to the target protein but also enhance the oral availability of the compound by improving its absorption from the small intestine. Moreover, higher lipophilicity will improve tissue distribution and thereby increase the volume of distribution, which, at constant clearance, will also extend the half-life of a drug. PK (pharmacokinetic) improvement by enhancement of lipophilicity is exemplified by the adrenergic agonists oxedrine, bamethan, and clenbuterol (Scheme 3.1).



Scheme 3.1 Effect of alkyl groups on PK properties.

Usually, more or larger alkyl groups will render a compound less water soluble, but occasionally, an additional alkyl group may increase the solubility by lowering the crystal lattice energy. Unbranched alkyl groups lead to a larger increase in lipophilicity than isomeric branched groups (because of the larger lipophilic surface area of straight alkyl groups), as illustrated by the solubilities of isomeric pentanols and hexanols shown in Scheme 3.2 [1].

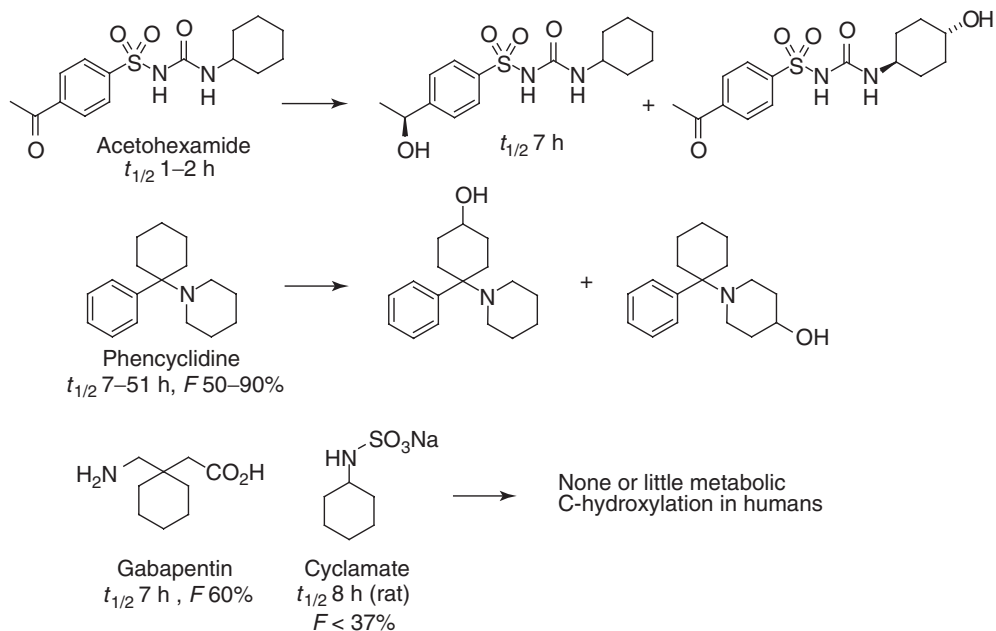


Scheme 3.2 Solubility of pentanols, hexanols, and phenol.

Alkyl groups exert a significant electron-donating effect, and can lower the acidity of phenols or carboxylic acids, and enhance the electron density at arenes or heteroarenes and the basicity of amines. Such effects may have dramatic consequences for the selectivity, potency, and metabolic stability of a drug. One exception is the cyclopropyl group, which has a slight electron-withdrawing effect because of the sp²-like hybridization of its carbon atoms. Thus, cyclopropylamines or (cyclopropylmethyl)amines are less basic than isopropyl- or isobutylamines (see Chapter 23).

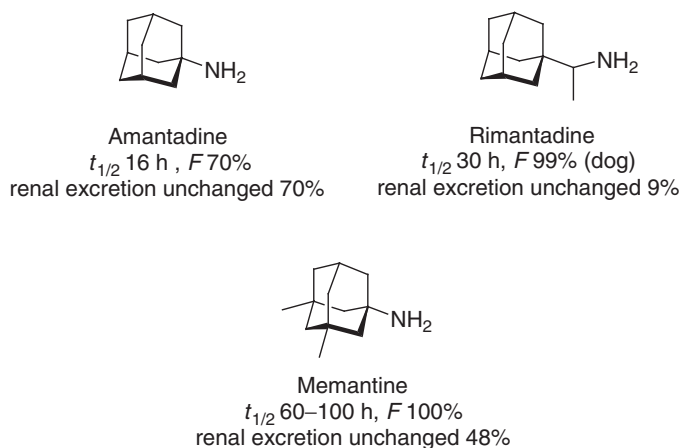
3.1 Metabolism

Alkyl groups can be hydroxylated by liver enzymes. Particularly reactive are benzylic or allylic positions. Methyl groups directly attached to an arene or heteroarene are often hydroxylated or even oxidized to a carboxyl group. As illustrated by the examples in Scheme 3.3, the metabolic fate of alkyl groups is not determined by the structure of the alkyl group alone, but by the structure of the whole molecule. Thus, cyclohexyl groups are often rapidly hydroxylated in positions 4 or 3, but a number of small cyclohexane derivatives, some with long plasma half-lives, do not undergo C-hydroxylation at all.



Scheme 3.3 Metabolism of substituted cyclohexanes.

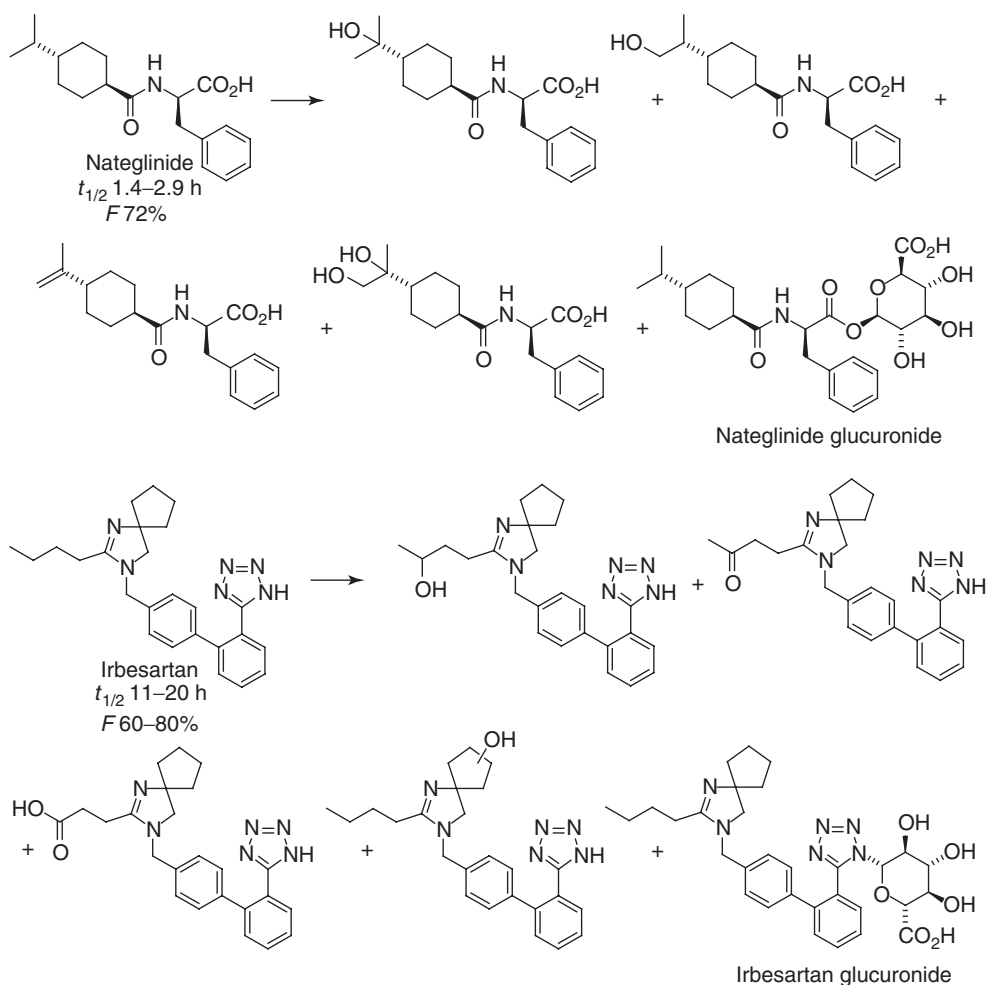
Similarly, amantadine (Scheme 3.4) is hardly metabolized [2], while the closely related rimantadine undergoes extensive hydroxylation at the adamantyl group. More than 20% of orally administered rimantadine is excreted in the urine as hydroxylated metabolites.



Scheme 3.4 Metabolic stability of adamantylamines.

Long alkyl chains are usually hydroxylated at the penultimate carbon ($\omega - 1$), and may even be oxidized to carboxylic acids. The latter may be α -hydroxylated, decarboxylated, and oxidized further to yield shorter carboxylic acids.

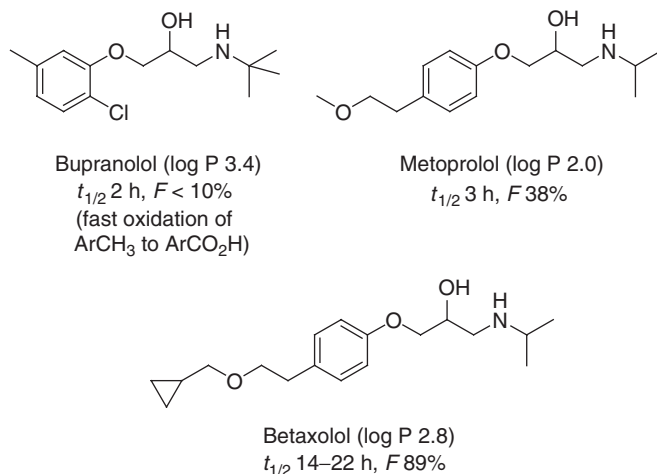
As illustration of typical metabolic reactions of alkyl groups, the human metabolites of nateglinide and irbesartan are shown in Scheme 3.5 [3].



Scheme 3.5 Metabolism of nateglinide and irbesartan.

The metabolic hydroxylation of alkyl groups may be avoided by keeping them small, by substituting hydrogen by fluorine or other heteroatoms, by substituting the alkyl group by chlorine or an alkoxy group, or by rendering the molecule more hydrophilic. Occasionally, structural modification of the alkyl group, for example,

the introduction of a methyl, cyclopropyl, or ethinyl group, may also block metabolic hydroxylation, as in the β -adrenergic antagonist betaxolol (Scheme 3.6).



Scheme 3.6 Metabolic stabilization of methyl ethers by conversion to cyclopropylmethyl ethers.

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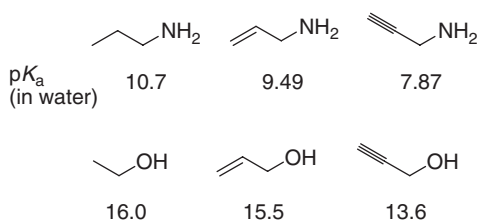
4

Alkenes and Alkynes

Because alkenes are chemically reactive and may be metabolized to potentially toxic epoxides, medicinal chemists tend to avoid them. Many olefins such as styrene, allyl alcohol, allylamine, 1,3-butadiene, and vinyl chloride are irritant, hepatotoxic agents, and potential carcinogens. However, several drugs with vinyl or ethynyl groups have been a success, and unsaturation should be considered for pharmacokinetic (PK) fine-tuning and patent avoidance. Toxicity will be less of an issue if a compound is highly potent, and few milligrams will suffice for a one-day treatment.

Owing to the higher polarizability of olefins and alkynes, compared to the corresponding saturated compounds, the former tend to be more soluble in water.

Vinyl or ethynyl groups are electron withdrawing and can be used to decrease the electron density at arenes or heteroarenes. Allylamines and propargylamines are significantly less basic than the corresponding propylamines, and allyl alcohols are more acidic than propanols (Scheme 4.1 [1]).



Scheme 4.1 The effect of unsaturation on pK_a values.

4.1

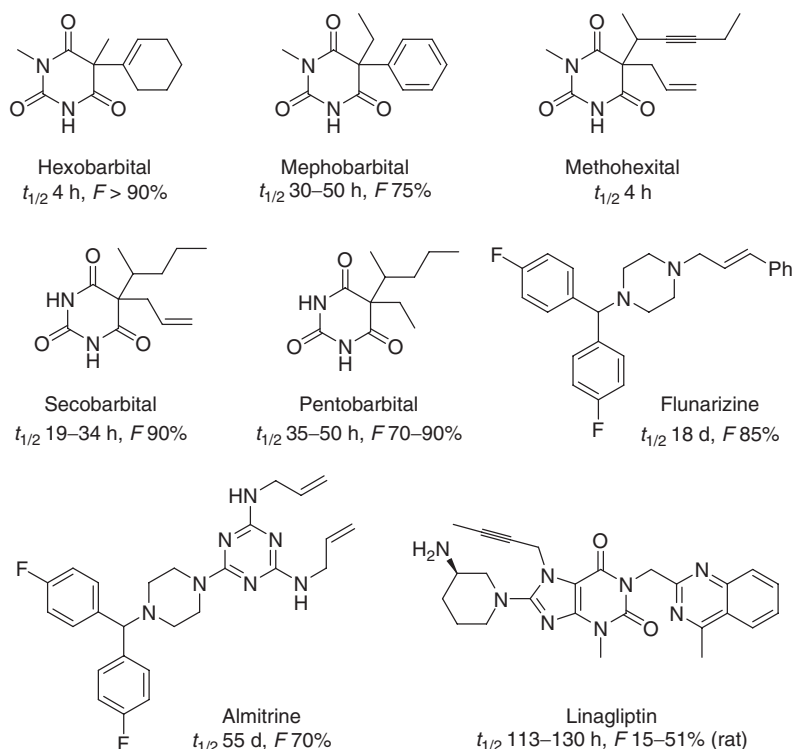
Metabolism

The rate and type of metabolization depends on the olefin's electron density and precise structure. Electron-deficient olefins, such as cinnamic acids, are often hydrogenated *in vivo* to alkanes. Electron-rich olefins and arenes, however, are mainly epoxidized by liver enzymes. Depending on their structure, these epoxides may be more or less reactive toward nucleophiles. Some epoxides are rather unreactive and can be readily detected in plasma or urine, or even be used as drugs, such as the bronchodilator tiotropium ($t_{1/2}$ 5–6 d), the scopolamines, or the

epoxide of carbamazepine. Other epoxides, in particular arene oxides, are highly reactive and will either alkylate P450 enzymes and lead to irreversible cytochrome P450 (CYP) inhibition, or alkylate other proteins or nucleic acids in the liver, leading to hepatotoxicity or hepatocarcinogenicity. The carcinogenicity of benzpyrene, vinyl chloride, and the aflatoxins is caused by metabolic epoxidation.

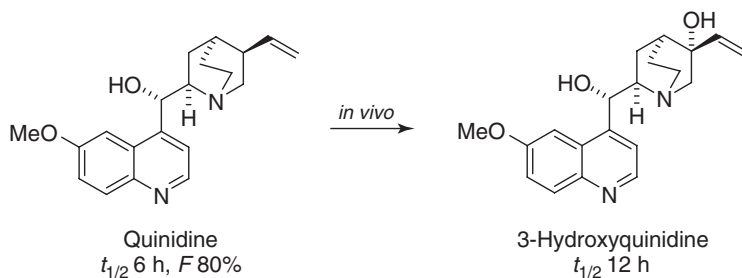
Epoxides do not necessarily lead to enzyme inactivation or to the alkylation of DNA, but may also be hydrated enzymatically to 1,2-diols. Furthermore, the ubiquitous sulfur nucleophile glutathione can also be alkylated by sufficiently reactive epoxides and thereby mediate their detoxification.

Unsaturated hydrocarbons may be quickly metabolized to 1,2-diols (via epoxides). This transformation has been used to design drugs with a short half-life. The barbiturate methohexital, for instance, is metabolized faster than other, related barbiturates and has been used as a short-acting, injectable anesthetic (Scheme 4.2). The long half-life and high oral bioavailability of secobarbital, however, shows that metabolic degradation of vinyl groups is not always fast. Particularly long-lived olefins are the piperazine derivatives flunarizine and almitrine.



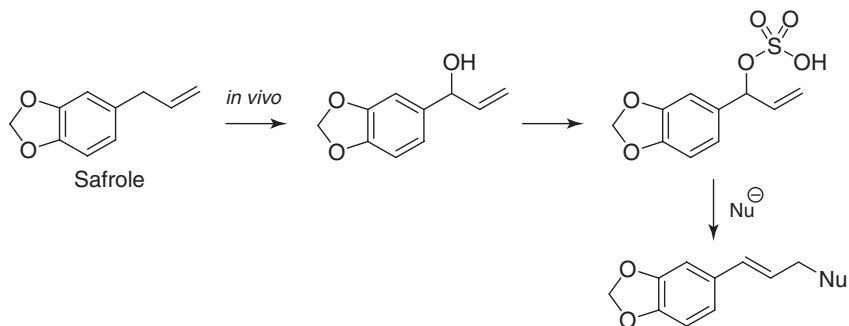
Scheme 4.2 Alkene- and alkyne-containing drugs.

Epoxidation is not necessarily the fastest metabolic reaction of an alkene. In some olefins, allylic hydroxylation or other metabolic pathways may effectively compete with epoxidation, as, for instance, in the antiarrhythmic quinidine (Scheme 4.3).



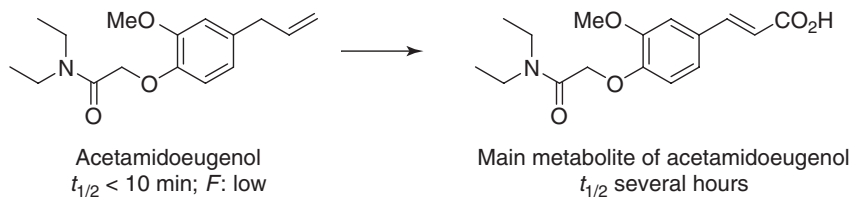
Scheme 4.3 Metabolism of quinidine.

Allylbenzenes such as estragole or safrole are similarly activated by hydroxylation at the allylic/benzylic position (Scheme 4.4). Sulfation of the resulting allylic alcohol leads to strongly alkylating carcinogens.



Scheme 4.4 Metabolism of safrole.

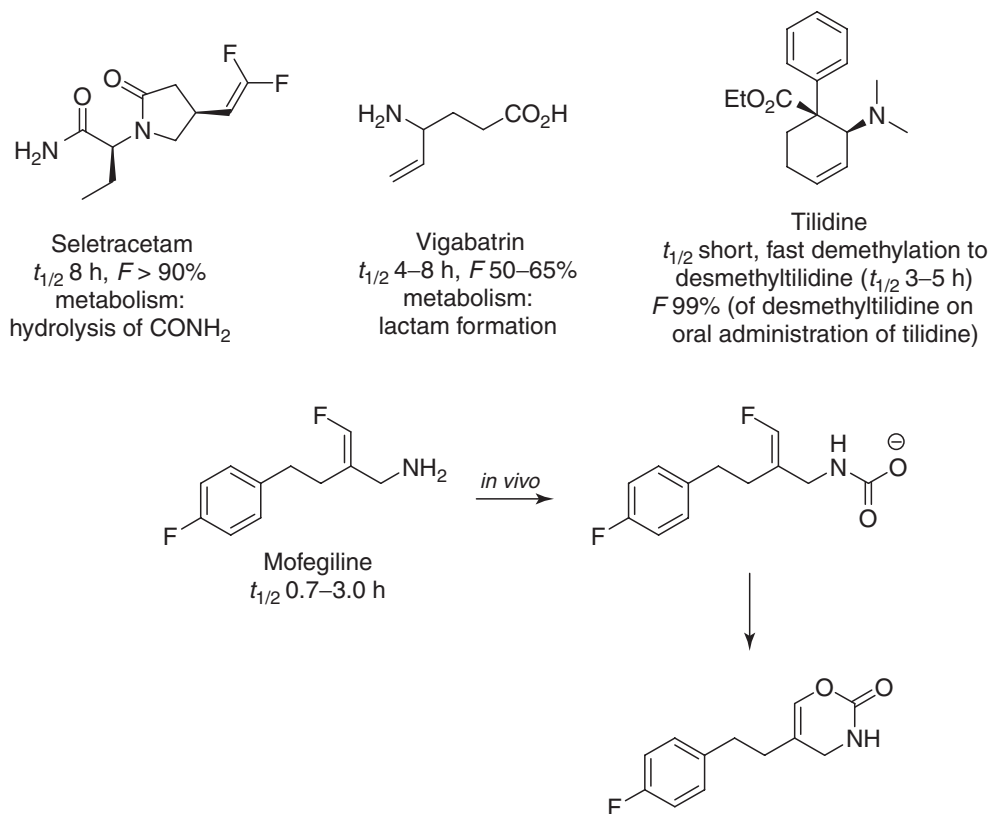
Not all allylbenzenes are metabolized to allylic sulfates. The short-acting anesthetic acetamidoeugenol, withdrawn for causing local irritation, is converted *in vivo* to a cinnamic acid, presumably via isomerization and oxidation of an intermediate allylic alcohol (Scheme 4.5 [2]).



Scheme 4.5 Metabolism of acetamidoeugenol.

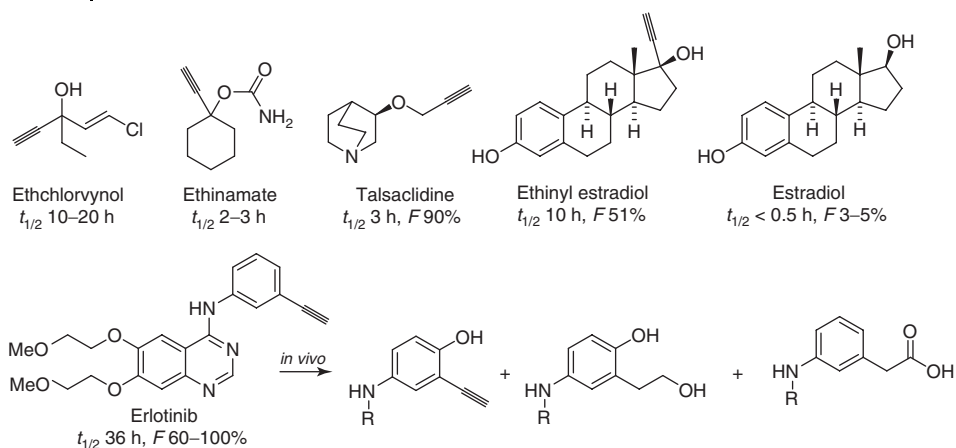
The different metabolic fates of safrole and acetamidoeugenol suggest that metabolism predictions are far from trivial. Several drugs containing olefins or alkynes have been successfully launched and do not show any excessive toxicity.

Therefore, if a lead with a larger alkyl group is too lipophilic or insoluble, an unsaturated analog may be an option to test. Small, hydrophilic drugs containing an alkene, such as seletracetam, vigabatrin, or tilidine (Scheme 4.6), seem not to be metabolized to toxic epoxides. The main metabolic pathway of the irreversible monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitor mofegiline in humans and dogs is carbamate formation by carboxylation and intramolecular vinylic displacement of fluoride [3].



Scheme 4.6 Alkene-containing drugs and their metabolic transformations.

Relatively few alkyne-containing drugs have been marketed. Notable examples include the obsolete oral hypnotics ethinamate and ethchlorvynol, the contraceptive ethinyl estradiol, and the antineoplastic kinase inhibitor erlotinib (Scheme 4.7). In ethinylestradiol, the ethinyl group effectively blocks enzymatic oxidation to estrone and thus first-pass metabolism. Ethinylestradiol has much higher oral availability and longer half-life than the parent estradiol. Metabolic transformations of the ethinyl group of erlotinib are shown in Scheme 4.7.



Scheme 4.7 Alkyne-containing drugs.

References

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5

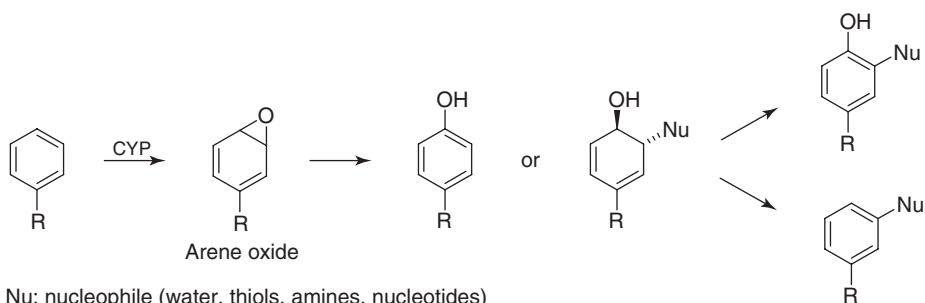
Arenes

Arenes and heteroarenes are ubiquitous structural elements of drugs. Their popularity is mainly due to their good synthetic accessibility. Substituted arenes and heteroarenes are often easier to prepare than saturated cyclic compounds because no stereoisomers are formed and because the regioselectivity of aromatic substitutions is predictable. Moreover, arenes dissolve better in water than cyclohexanes, mainly because of their higher polarizability.

5.1

Metabolism

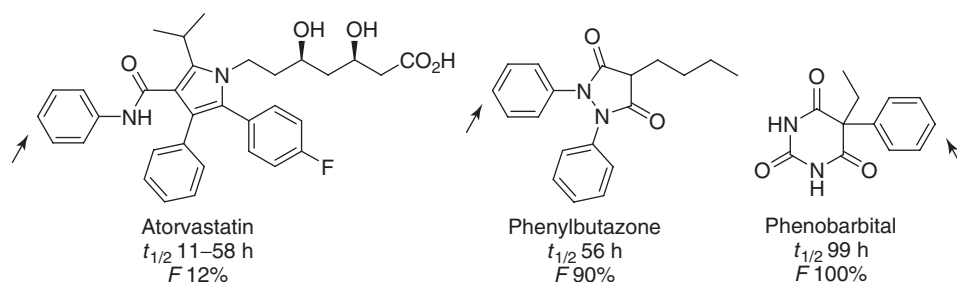
The metabolic fate of arenes depends not only on the precise substitution pattern but also on the overall structure of the arene-containing compound. The most common metabolic transformation of arenes is hydroxylation via the intermediate formation of an arene oxide (Scheme 5.1).



Scheme 5.1 Metabolism of arenes.

The reactivity and thus the toxicity and mutagenicity of arenes and arene-derived metabolic intermediates depends on their substituents. While the arene oxides of benzene or benzo[a]pyrene are cancerogenic, the arene oxide of bromobenzene mainly reacts with proteins in the liver leading to necrosis. Alkylbenzenes,

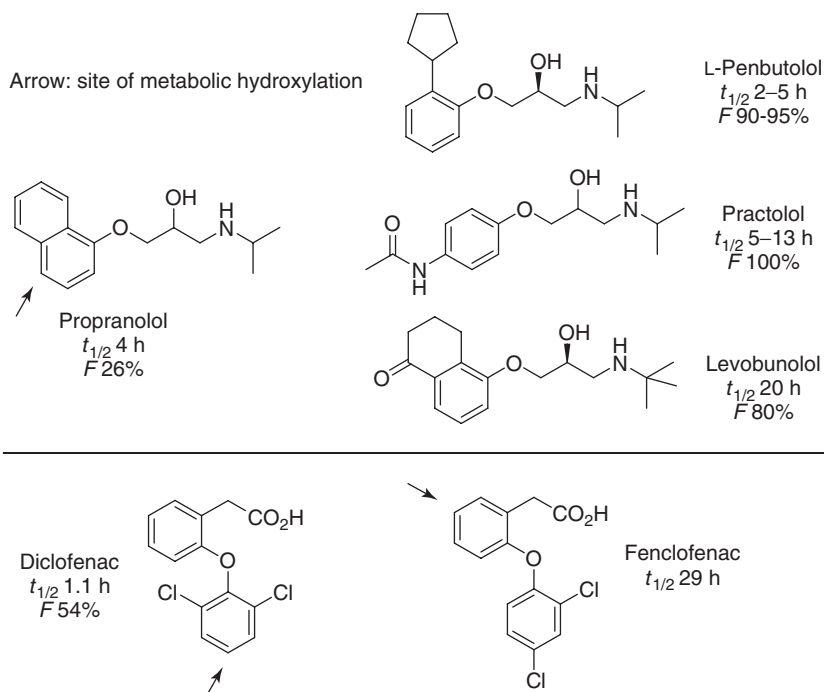
such as toluene, are usually not mutagenic but are mainly metabolized at the benzylic positions; phenylalanine is converted to tyrosin. Arenes with electron-withdrawing substituents, such as benzoic acid, or highly substituted arenes are often resistant to metabolic epoxidation. Electron-rich arenes, such as arylethers, alkylarenes, or anilines, are usually metabolized faster than electron-poor arenes (haloareenes, arylketones, and benzoic acid derivatives). The rate of hydroxylation of monosubstituted, electron-rich benzenes can, however, be sufficiently slow for their use in drugs (Scheme 5.2).



Arrow: site of metabolic hydroxylation

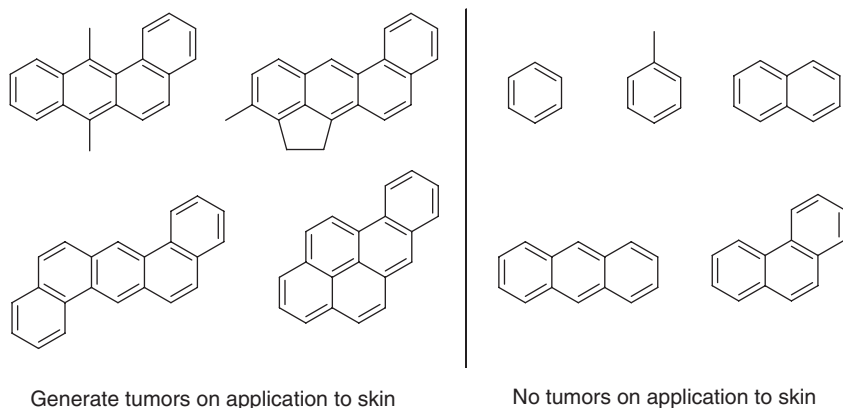
Scheme 5.2 Hydroxylation of drugs with electron-rich phenyl groups.

If one's lead is too short-lived, and aromatic hydroxylation is the fastest metabolic reaction, fluorination of the arene may be an option. Alternatively, if the target permits it, chlorine, alkoxy, acetamido, cyclopropyl, or ethinyl groups may be attached to the site of metabolic hydroxylation. An electron-withdrawing substituent at any position of the arene may also block or retard hydroxylation, as illustrated by the β -adrenergic antagonists in Scheme 5.3. Chlorination of the para position of the dichlorophenoxy group in diclofenac leads to a 30-fold increase of plasma half-life.



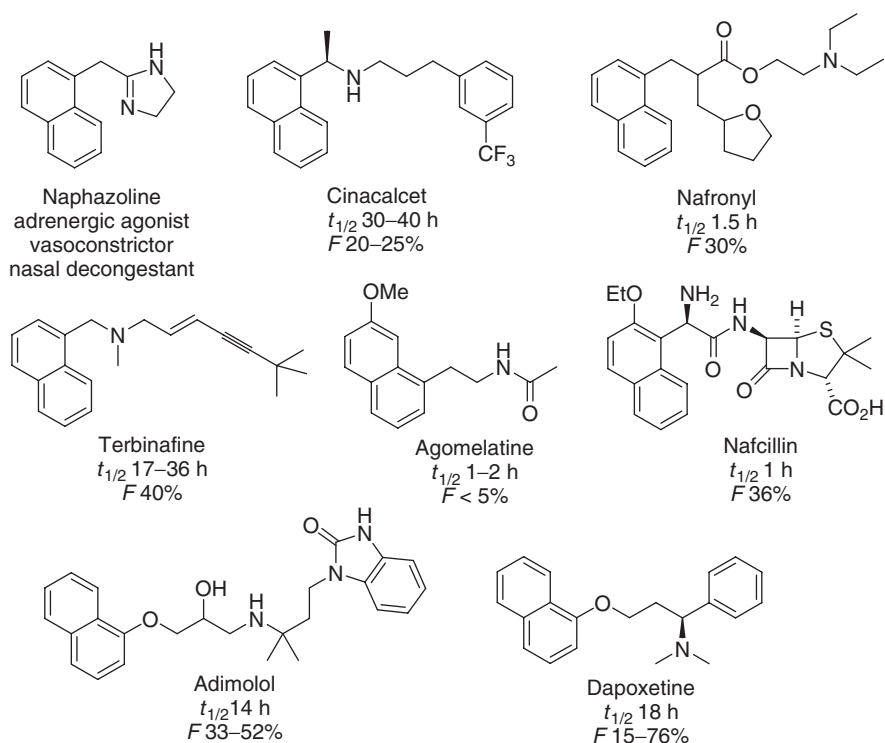
Scheme 5.3 Metabolism and half-life of arylother-containing drugs.

Large, polycyclic arenes can be highly carcinogenic, and lead to tumors when repeatedly applied to the skin. This is, however, not the case for smaller hydrocarbons (Scheme 5.4). Chronic exposure to benzene, however, can cause leukemia.



Scheme 5.4 Carcinogenic and non-carcinogenic arenes.

Naphthalene is significantly more reactive than benzene or toluene, and few drugs contain unsubstituted 1- or 2-naphthyl groups (Scheme 5.5). Naphthyloxy groups, however, are frequently used and appear to yield only unproblematic metabolites (e.g., 4-hydroxylated 1-naphthyloxy). One metabolite of cinacalcet is a 1,2-dihydroxylated dihydronaphthalene. 1-Naphthylamine has been used to develop anticholinesterase agents (e.g., 1-naphthyl *N*-methylcarbamate, an insecticide) and rodenticides (1-naphthylthiourea). 2-Naphthylamine and its derivatives are potent carcinogens and are unlikely to be of any use in drug development.



Scheme 5.5 Drugs containing naphthyl groups.

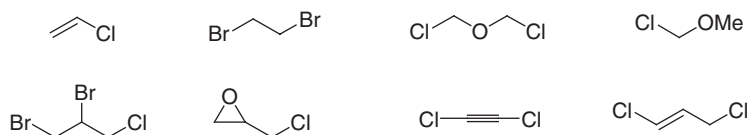
The few monoalkylnaphthalene-containing drugs cannot, in view of the examples in Scheme 5.5, be related to synthetic inaccessibility or biological inactivity alone. A more likely reason may be toxicity or CYP (cytochrome *P*450) inhibition issues. Suitable alternatives to naphthyl are benzannulated heterocycles, such as benzimidazole, benzpyrazole, benzoxazole, benzothiazole, indole, quinoline, quinoxaline, and so on.

6

Halides

The properties of the four halogens diverge so much as to merit individual chapters. The only shared property is their ability to act as a leaving group for nucleophilic displacement: organic halides are electrophilic compounds capable of reacting irreversibly with nucleophiles such as thiols, amines, or nucleic acids. However, their ability to do so depends to a large extent on the precise structure of the organic halide.

Highly reactive halides, such as benzylic, allylic, α -alkoxy, α - or β -alkylthio, or α -carbonyl halides, or non-neopentyl alkyl bromides or iodides, are too reactive to be suitable as drugs, unless irreversible alkylation of a protein or nucleic acid is the aim. Vinylic halides may be metabolically activated by epoxidation. Such halides can alkylate DNA and be mutagenic and carcinogenic. A selection of carcinogenic organic halides is shown in Scheme 6.1.



Scheme 6.1 Carcinogenic organic halides.

6.1 Fluorine

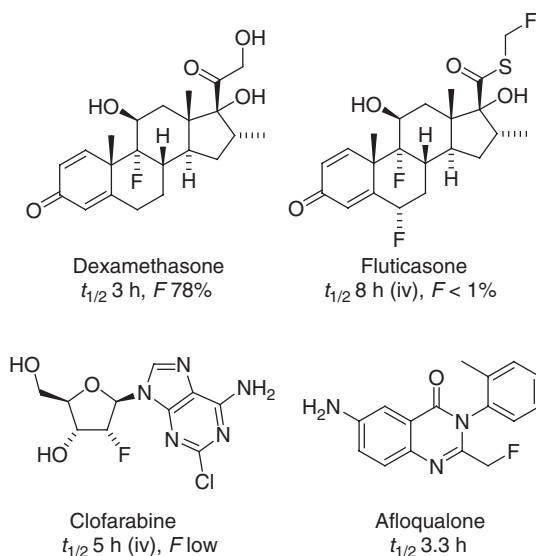
Fluorine is a bioisostere of hydrogen. Thus, the physicochemical properties of fluorinated compounds are similar to those of nonfluorinated analogs (Scheme 6.2) [1].

| | | | | | | |
|--|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | | | | | |
| bp | 79 °C | 82 °C | 182 °C | 183 °C | 172 °C | 180 °C |
| p <i>K</i> _a (H ₂ O) | –0.11 | –0.33 | 3.20 | 4.58 | 8.81 | 10.0 |
| log P | –0.11 | –0.33 | 1.47 | 1.14 | 1.82 | 1.54 |

Scheme 6.2 Effects of fluorination.

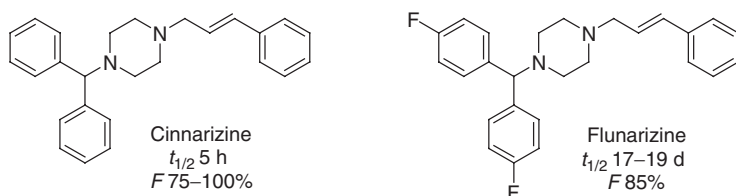
However, chemically, hydrogen and fluorine atoms behave quite differently. Because C–F bonds are strong, homolytic cleavage is usually not possible; therefore fluorine atoms may be used to block oxidative degradation by liver enzymes. Aromatic nucleophilic substitution or β -elimination of fluoride can, however, readily occur, also *in vivo*.

Single fluorine atoms at sp^3 -carbon have been used to modulate the selectivity and metabolism of antiinflammatory cortisone analogs and of antineoplastic nucleotide analogs (Scheme 6.3).



Scheme 6.3 Fluorinated drugs.

Because alkyl fluorides are not easy to prepare, most examples of single fluorine substitution are at vinylic or aromatic positions. One of the most useful properties of single fluorine atoms is their ability to block metabolic hydroxylation. If this is the rate-determining metabolic pathway, selective fluorination may significantly enhance the plasma half-life and oral availability of a lead. A comparison of cinnarizine with flunarizine clearly illustrates this point. Cinnarizine is mainly metabolized by aromatic hydroxylation of the benzhydryl group, which is no longer possible in flunarizine (Scheme 6.4).

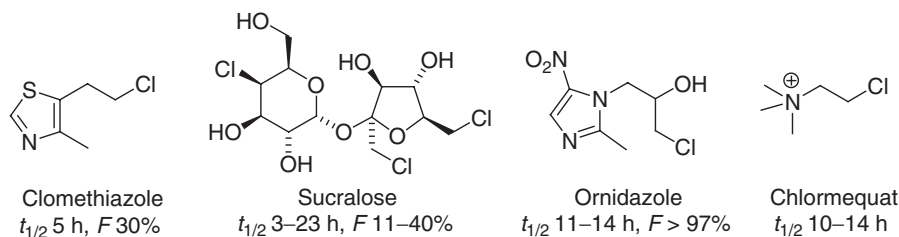


Scheme 6.4 Effect of fluorination.

Trifluoromethyl groups are metabolically stable and have been used as highly hydrophobic substituents, similar to methyl groups or chlorine atoms. Also, difluoromethyl, difluoromethoxy, and trifluoromethoxy groups can be used for this purpose. Such substituents not only increase the stability of a compound but also modify its solubility and affinity to proteins. C–F bonds are less polarizable than C–H bonds, and perfluoroalkanes are therefore not attracted by alkanes through induced-dipole–induced-dipole interactions (dispersion or London interactions). Thus, perfluoroalkyl groups are hydrophobic without being lipophilic.

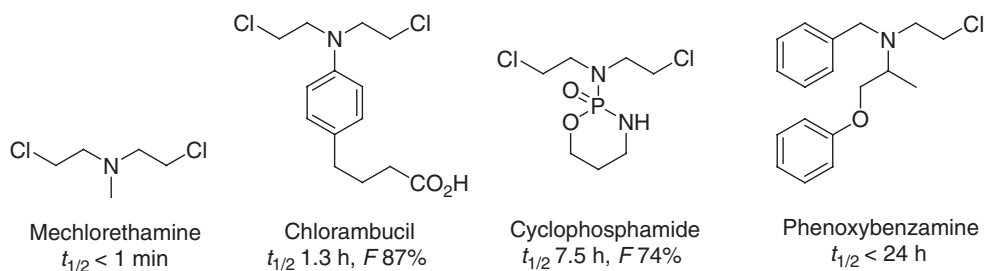
6.2 Chlorine

The chlorine atom is metabolically inert and lipophilic, and well suited to enhance the affinity of a lead to its target protein. Alkyl chlorides are more reactive toward nucleophiles than alkyl fluorides, but often sufficiently unreactive to resist metabolic degradation. Thus, the sedative clomethiazole, the artificial sweetener sucralose, the antiprotozoal ornidazole, and the plant-growth regulator chlormequat are stable and do not react as electrophiles *in vivo* (Scheme 6.5). However, one of the metabolites of ornidazole is a diol, resulting from the displacement of chloride by hydroxide.



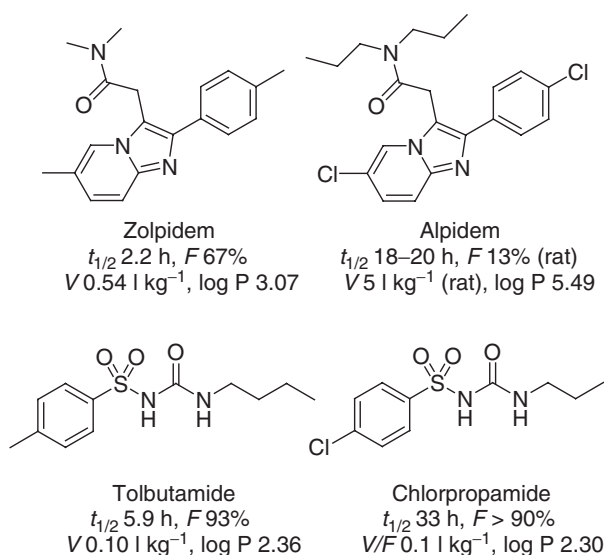
Scheme 6.5 Alkyl chlorides of low toxicity.

Only benzylic, allylic, or similarly activated chlorides will alkylate nucleophiles under physiological conditions. Bis(2-chloroethyl)amine derivatives, for instance, in which the nitrogen atom assists nucleophilic displacement, are useful as antineoplastics by virtue of their ability to alkylate nucleic acids (Scheme 6.6). The most reactive of them must be given intravenously, but the more unreactive ones, such as chlorambucil, are sufficiently stable to permit oral dosing. The irreversible α -adrenergic antagonist phenoxybenzamine is used for treating tumors of the adrenal medulla and sympathetic neurons (pheochromocytomas).

**Scheme 6.6** Alkylating drugs.

Vinyl chlorides are less stable than the corresponding vinyl fluorides and can lead to toxic metabolites. Aryl chlorides, however, are metabolically stable unless strongly electron-withdrawing groups facilitate their substitution by an addition–elimination mechanism. Some chlorinated compounds, such as DDT, chlorinated biphenyls, or tetrachlorodioxin, are extremely inert toward metabolic or chemical degradation, which has forced the authorities of most countries to prohibit their preparation and use.

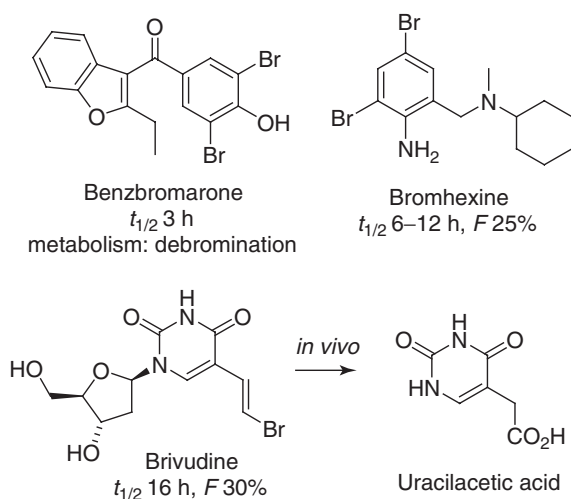
Arene-bound methyl groups can often be replaced by chlorine to yield metabolically more stable compounds with similar biological activity. This strategy was used to design long-acting analogs of zolpidem and tolbutamide (Scheme 6.7).

**Scheme 6.7** Methylated versus chlorinated drugs.

6.3

Bromine

Alkyl bromides are usually too reactive and cannot be used as drugs, unless an alkylating agent is required. One exception is the chemically unreactive inhalation anesthetic halothane ($\text{F}_3\text{CCHClBr}$), which can, however, cause liver damage on repeated use. Some aryl bromides are readily debrominated *in vivo*, such as the uricosuric benzbromarone (Scheme 6.8). Many aryl bromides are hepatotoxic. Some, however, seem to be safe, such as the expectorant bromhexine and the antiviral brivudine.



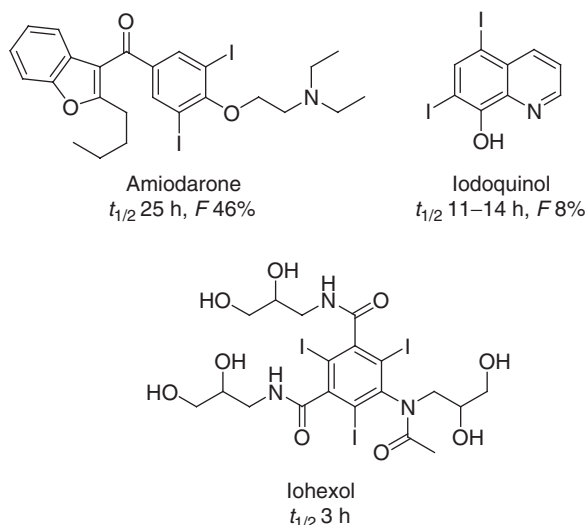
Scheme 6.8

Other drugs containing aryl bromides are brodimoprim, brofaromine, brimonidine, bromocriptine (a 2-bromoindole), etravirine, zimeldine, brompheniramine, and a number of benzodiazepines.

6.4

Iodine

The iodine–carbon bond is rather weak, and most iodine-containing drugs will leak small amounts of iodide. Iodine-containing compounds are only used for special applications, namely, as contrast agents, radioactive tracing agents (^{131}I), topical antiseptics, or for the treatment of thyroid-related diseases. More iodinated drugs include iodoquinol (treatment of parasitic infections) and the antiarrhythmic amiodarone (Scheme 6.9). All these agents can cause acute hypersensitivity reactions because some people become allergic to iodine (iodism).



Scheme 6.9 Iodinated drugs.

Contrast agents, such as iohexol, are administered intravenously at high doses in the precise moment of the measurement (e.g., computer tomography) and are excreted mainly unchanged in the urine afterward.

Heavier halogen atoms in a lead may be replaced by azide, cyano, CF_3 , OCF_3 , OCHF_2 , SCF_3 , SCN , ethynyl, vinyl, or difluorovinyl groups.

6.5

Alkylating Agents

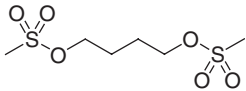
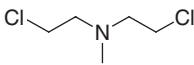
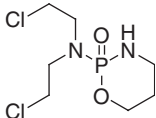
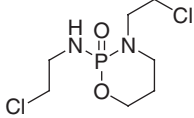
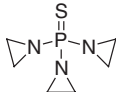
The vesicant properties of sulfur mustard (bis(2-chloroethyl)sulfide), used in World War I for chemical warfare, were already known in 1887. This compound is strongly cytotoxic, in particular to highly proliferative tissue, such as lymphoid tissue, bone marrow, and the intestine. Between the wars, the corresponding nitrogen mustards were shown to be similarly toxic, and in 1942, clinical trials were started to evaluate these alkylating agents in the treatment of various types of cancer. At present, mainly nitrogen mustards, alkyl sulfonates, aziridines, nitrosoureas (Chapter 12), and triazines (Chapter 10) are used as antineoplastic alkylants (Table 6.1).

One common feature of the alkylating agents for cancer therapy is their ability to mediate two alkylations and thereby crosslink two DNA molecules or DNA with a protein. Such a modification prevents both the replication of DNA and the biosynthesis of proteins.

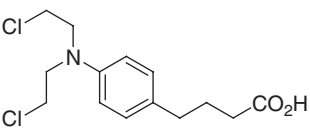
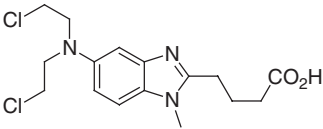
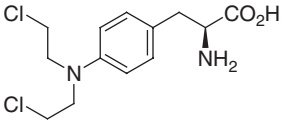
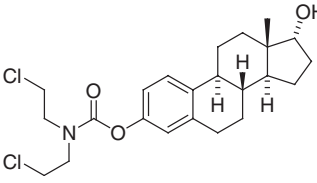
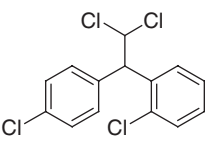
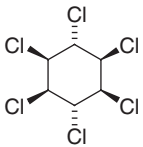
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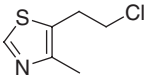
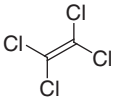
1. (a) Hagmann, W.K. (2008) The many roles of fluorine in medicinal chemistry. *J. Med. Chem.*, **51**, 4359–4369; (b) Park, B.K., Kitteringham, N.R., and O'Neill, P.M. (2001) Metabolism of fluorine-containing drugs. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*, **41**, 443–470; (c) Patani, G.A. and LaVoie, E.J. (1996) Bioisosterism: a rational approach in drug design. *Chem. Rev.*, **96**, 3147–3176; (d) Park, B.K. and Kitteringham, N.R. (1994) Effects of fluorine substitution on drug metabolism: pharmacological and toxicological implications. *Drug Metabol. Rev.*, **26**, 605–643.

Table 6.1 Alkylating agents and alkyl chlorides. V in l kg⁻¹, CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹, Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|-------|---------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.6±0.5 h | V | 1.0±0.2 | BUSULFAN |
| | F | 70% | CL/F | 4.5±0.9 | Antineoplastic; Metabolism: |
| | pb | 3–15% | Mwt | 246.3 | conjugation with glutathione, then |
| | ur | 0.5–3.0% | PSA | 104 Å ² | conversion to |
| | | | log P | –0.56 | tetrahydrothiophene S-oxide, sulfolane, and 3-hydroxysulfolane |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | <1 min | V | – | CHLORMETHINE, |
| | F | – | CL | – | MECHLORETHAMINE |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 156.1 | Antineoplastic for iv |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 3.24 Å ² | administration |
| | | | log P | 0.91 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 7.5±4.0 h | V | 0.9±0.6 | CYCLOPHOSPHAMIDE |
| | F | 74±22% | CL | 1.3±0.5 | Antineoplastic, |
| | pb | 13% | Mwt | 261.1 | immunosuppressant; activation |
| | ur | 6.5±4.3% | PSA | 51.4 Å ² | by hepatic metabolism; |
| | | | log P | 0.73 | Metabolism: N-dealkylation, hydroxylation at CH ₂ NH, then oxidation to lactam and ring opening to carboxylic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 4–10 h | V | 0.4–0.6 | IFOSFAMIDE |
| | F | 100% | CL | 0.8–2.3 | Antineoplastic, crosses bbb |
| | pb | 20% | Mwt | 261.1 | Metabolism: hydroxylation of ring |
| | ur | 15% | PSA | 51.4 Å ² | CH ₂ N to active form of drug, |
| | | | log P | 0.76 | followed by ring-opening and β-elimination to acrolein; hydroxylation of exocyclic CH ₂ N followed by hydrolysis to chloroacetaldehyde |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1–2 h | V | – | THIOTEPA |
| | F | – | CL | 19 | Antineoplastic; Metabolite: |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 189.2 | phosphoramidate (tepa, replacement |
| | ur | <10% | PSA | 50.9 Å ² | of S by O; $t_{1/2}$ 3–24 h) |
| | | | log P | 0.53 | |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|-----|---------------------|---|
|  | $t^{1/2}$ | 1.3±0.9 h | V | 0.29±0.21 | CHLORAMBUCIL |
| | F | 87±20% | CL | 2.6±0.9 | Antineoplastic |
| | pb | 99% | Mwt | 304.2 | Metabolism: |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 40.5 Å ² | oxidative degradation to arylacetic acid, substitution of Cl by OH |
| | log P | | | 2.61 | |
|  | $t^{1/2}$ | 0.5 h | V | 0.24–0.32 | BENDAMUSTINE |
| | F | – | CL | 7.5 | Antineoplastic |
| | pb | >95% | Mwt | 358.3 | Metabolism: |
| | ur | 10–45% | PSA | 58.4 Å ² | substitution of Cl by OH, N-demethylation, conjugation with glutathione, hydroxylation of propylene |
| | log P | | | 2.38 | |
|  | $t^{1/2}$ | 1.4±0.2 h | V | 0.5±0.2 | MELPHALAN |
| | F | 71±23% | CL | 5.2±2.9 | Antineoplastic |
| | pb | 90±5% | Mwt | 305.2 | Metabolism: |
| | ur | 12±7% | PSA | 66.6 Å ² | sequential displacement of chloride by hydroxide |
| | log P | | | 0.54 | |
|  | $t^{1/2}$ | 9–23 h | V | 0.11 | ESTRAMUSTINE |
| | F | 44–75% | CL | 0.9–1.1 | Antineoplastic |
| | pb | 99% | Mwt | 440.4 | Metabolism: |
| | ur | – | PSA | 49.8 Å ² | oxidation to ketone, hydrolysis of carbamate; oral prodrug: phosphoric acid ester |
| | log P | | | 5.75 | |
|  | $t^{1/2}$ | 18–159 d | V | – | MITOTANE |
| | F | 40% | CL | – | Antiadrenal agent, antineoplastic; blocks 11β-hydroxylation of adrenocorticoid precursors |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 320.0 | Metabolite: diarylacetic acid, dehydrogenation to 1,1-diaryl-2,2-dichloroethylene |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 0.0 Å ² | |
| | log P | | | 5.41 | |
|  | $t^{1/2}$ | 21 h | V | 8* | LINDANE |
| | F | – | CL | – | *sheep |
| | pb | 91% | Mwt | 290.8 | Insecticide |
| | ur | – | PSA | 0.0 Å ² | Metabolites: |
| | log P | | | 3.82 | 1,2,4-trichlorobenzene, di- and trichlorophenols |

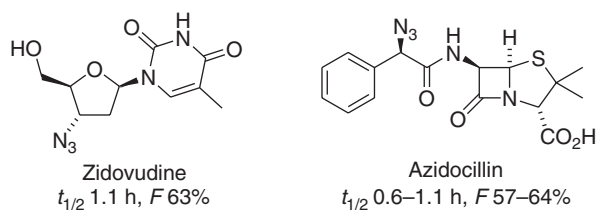
| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|---------------|-------|----------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 5 ± 2 h | V | 8 ± 5 | CLOMETHIAZOLE |
| | F | $30 \pm 10\%$ | CL | 18 ± 7 | Sedative, hypnotic, anticonvulsant |
| | pb | $63 \pm 2\%$ | Mwt | 161.7 | Metabolism: hydroxylation to |
| | ur | $<1\%$ | PSA | 41.1 \AA^2 | 1-hydroxy-2-chloroethyl, then |
| | | | log P | 1.71 | dehydrohalogenation to 5-acetyl-4-methylthiazole, then reduction to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 144 h | V | 8.2 | TETRACHLOROETHYLENE, |
| | F | High | CL | – | PERC |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 165.8 | Dry cleaning solvent, anthelmintic |
| | ur | $<4\%$ | PSA | 0.0 \AA^2 | Metabolites: trichloroacetic acid |
| | | | log P | 3.07 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

7

Azides

At present, only few azido-group-containing drugs are on the market, for example, zidovudine and azidocillin (Scheme 7.1). Zidovudine is a nucleoside mimetic, the azido group replacing a hydroxyl group of 2'-deoxythymidine. Azidocillin is an older β -lactam antibiotic, closely related to ampicillin and benzylpenicillin, which was developed in the late 1960s.



Scheme 7.1 Azides as drugs.

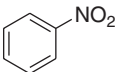
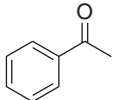
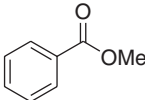
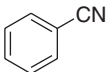
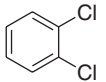

Azides are chemically reactive, and may act as electrophilic aminating reagents under acidic conditions, similar to hydroxylamines. High doses of organic azides can therefore cause adverse drug reactions (see Section 2.6). One of the various metabolic transformations of zidovudine and azidocillin is the reduction of the azido group to an amino group.

8

Nitro Compounds

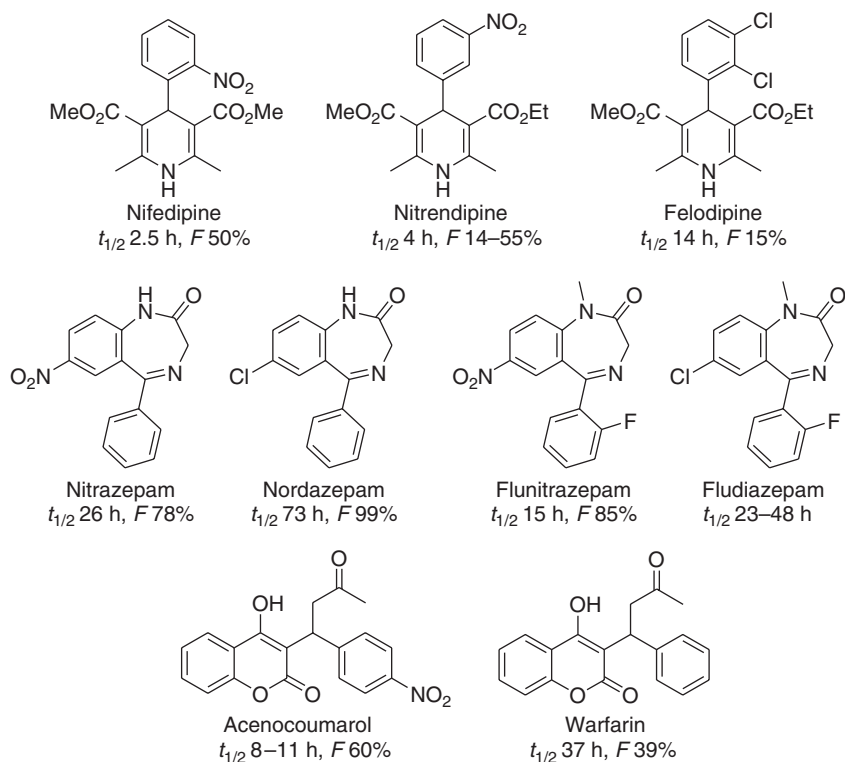
Most drugs with nitro groups are nitroarenes, nitroheteroarenes, or nitroethylenes. Nitroalkanes have not been used as drugs and may be metabolically too unstable.

The nitro group has a strong dipole moment, which leads to higher boiling and melting points of nitroarenes when compared to chloro- or bromoarenes (Scheme 8.1). When considering intermolecular attractive forces, nitroarenes are more closely related to acetophenones or benzoic esters than to haloarenes.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--|
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nitrobenzene bp 211 °C mp 6 °C log P 1.92 | Acetophenone bp 203 °C mp 21 °C log P 1.67 | Methyl benzoate bp 200 °C mp -12 °C log P 2.12 | Benzonitrile bp 191 °C mp -13 °C log P 1.58 | Dichlorobenzene bp 181 °C mp -17 °C log P 3.44 | Bromobenzene bp 156 °C mp -31 °C log P 2.94 |

Scheme 8.1 Properties of nitrobenzene and other substituted arenes.

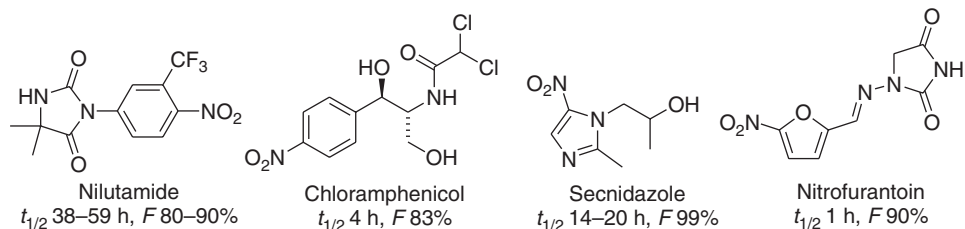
Nitroarenes are rather lipophilic and barely soluble in water. Further, lipophilic compounds with separated charges in their Lewis structures include diazoalkanes, nitrones, azides, and phosphorus- or sulfur-derived ylides. In their noncovalent interactions with proteins, nitroarenes behave as halo- or alkylarenes. For instance, dihydropyridine-based calcium channel antagonists (antihypertensives) often contain nitrophenyl groups, which may be replaced by 1,2-dichlorophenyl without altering the target selectivity (Scheme 8.2). In benzodiazepines, replacement of the 7-chlorine atom by a nitro group is also tolerated without affecting their hypnotic and sedative properties or their ability to cross the blood–brain barrier (bbb). The same is the case for the two anticoagulants acenocoumarol and warfarin.



Scheme 8.2 Impact on pharmacokinetics (PK) of the nitro group.

8.1 Metabolism

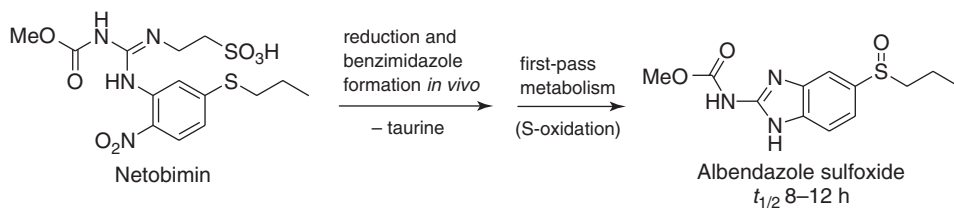
The most common metabolic transformation of nitroarenes is reduction to anilines by bacteria in the bowel, followed by N-acetylation. Potentially toxic metabolites include nitrosoarenes and *N*-arylhydroxylamines. The rate of reduction depends on the electron density at the nitroarene and is usually higher at electron-poor nitroarenes. In all the examples in Scheme 8.3, the nitro group undergoes metabolic reduction.



Scheme 8.3 Nitro group containing drugs.

The antibacterial and antiprotozoal activity of nitroazoles and nitrofurans, such as secnidazole and nitrofurantoin, depends on their reduction to radical anions by the target organism.

Nitro groups that are reduced quickly may serve as prodrugs. Netobimin, for instance, is metabolized by nitro group reduction to albendazole and its active metabolite albendazole sulfoxide (Scheme 8.4).

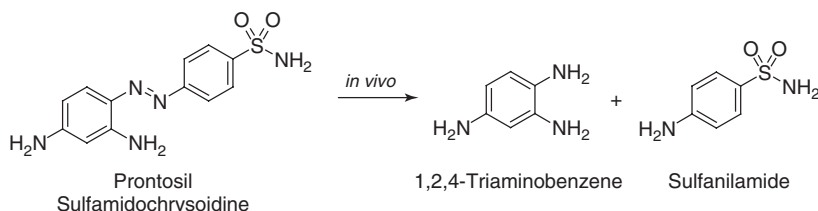


Scheme 8.4 Metabolism of netobimin.

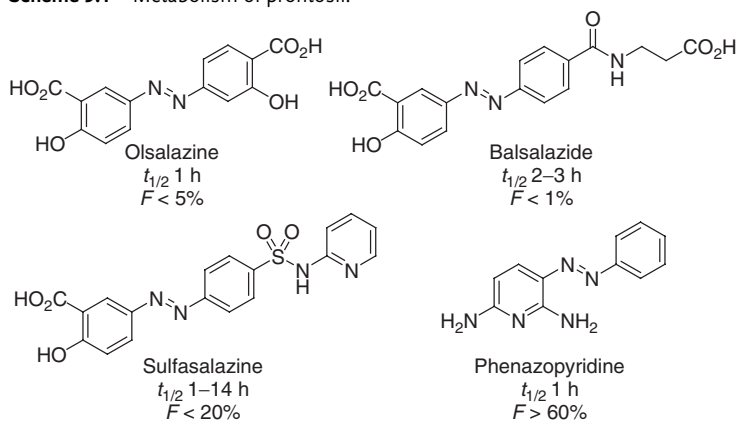
9

Azo Compounds

Paul Ehrlich, working at the Institute for Experimental Therapeutics in Frankfurt am Main, tested the dye methylene blue as potential analgesic because of its high affinity to nerves. In 1891, however, he cured two cases of mild malaria by treatment with methylene blue. Hundreds of dyes were then tested for antibacterial and antiprotozoal activity by Ehrlich and others, which led to the discovery of a number of useful drugs, among others of prontosil by Gerhard Domagk, Fritz Mietzsch, and Josef Klarer in 1932. This substance turned out to be a prodrug of sulfanilamide, a competitive antagonist of 4-aminobenzoic acid, and the active principle of prontosil (Scheme 9.1). The azo group is cleaved in the gut by intestinal bacteria.



Scheme 9.1 Metabolism of prontosil.



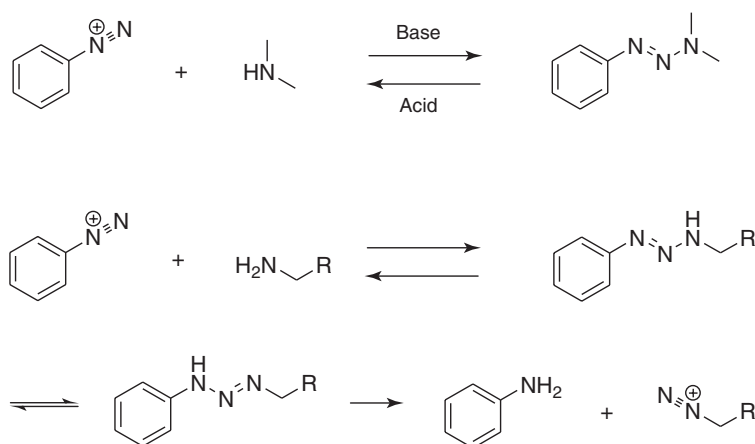
Scheme 9.2 Azo compounds as drugs.

Other drugs containing azo groups are shown in Scheme 9.2. These also undergo reductive cleavage in the intestine and are prodrugs for various analgesics and antibacterials.

10

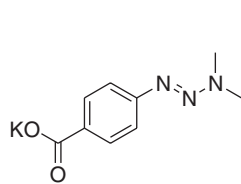
Triazenes

Triazenes result from the reversible addition of secondary amines to diazonium salts. This reaction proceeds readily under basic conditions, but acids quickly regenerate the starting materials. With primary aliphatic amines, diazotization followed by carbocation formation may occur (Scheme 10.1).

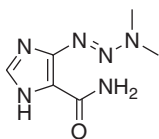


Scheme 10.1 Formation and decomposition of triazenes.

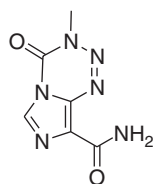
The antineoplastics dacarbazine and CB 10-277 (Scheme 10.2) have to be administered intravenously and are activated by N-demethylation in the liver. The resulting *N*-monomethyltriazenes decompose by the mechanism shown above to yield diazomethane or a methyl diazonium salt, which are exceedingly strong methylating agents. Temozolomide is similarly metabolized to an *N*-monomethyl triazene by urea hydrolysis. All these drugs are used to treat aggressive tumors (melanoma, Hodgkin's disease, and malignant brain tumors). Other drugs that are metabolized into methylating reagents include procarbazine and altretamine.



CB 10-277
 $t_{1/2}$ 2.5 h (iv)



Dacarbazine
 $t_{1/2}$ 5 h (iv)



Temozolomide
 $t_{1/2}$ 1.8 h, F 96%

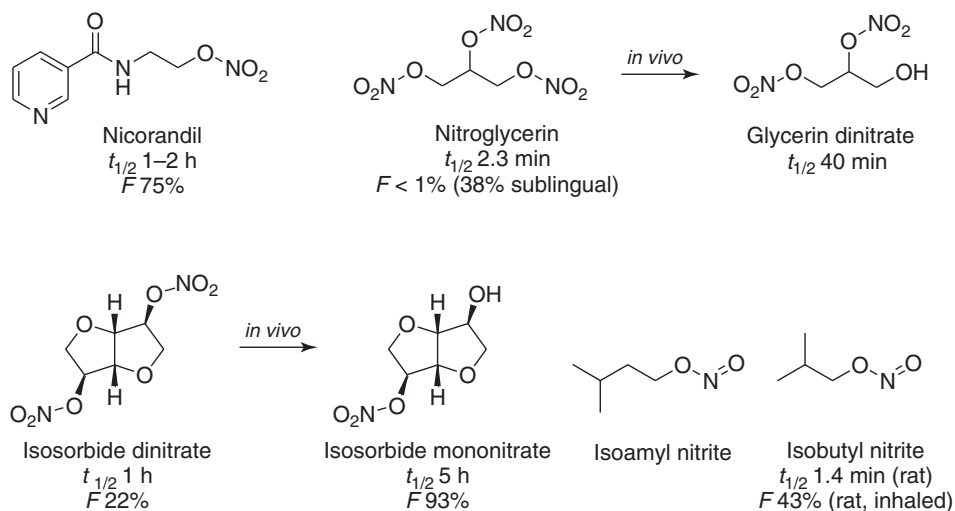
Scheme 10.2 Antineoplastic triazenes.

11

Nitrates and Nitrites

The vasodilating and antianginal properties of alkyl nitrates and nitrites were already discovered in the 1860 s and used since then for the treatment of angina pectoris.

Nitrates and nitrites undergo reductive hydrolysis *in vivo* to yield the parent alcohol and nitric oxide (NO). The latter triggers the biological effect of these substances. The half-life at which nitrates or nitrites generate nitric oxide ranges from a few minutes to several hours (Scheme 11.1). Lipophilic nitrates are hydrolyzed faster and have lower bioavailabilities than hydrophilic nitrates.



Scheme 11.1 Alkyl nitrates and nitrites as drugs.

Derivatives of *N*-nitrosamines, such as the antineoplastic *N*-nitrosourea carmustine, may also yield nitric oxide *in vivo*. However, the main metabolic pathway of *N*-nitrosoureas is their decomposition to alkyl diazonium salts and eventually carbocations.

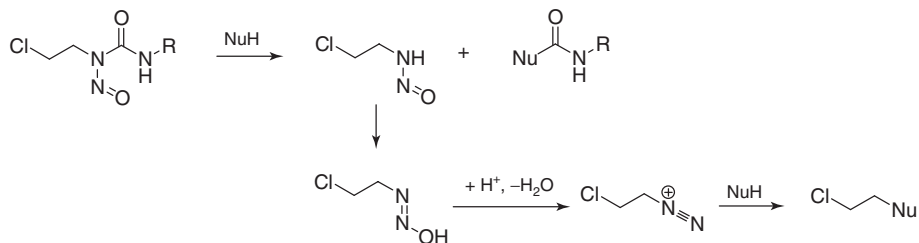
Further Reading

Sneader, W. (1999) Organic nitrates. *Drug News Perspect.*, **12**, 58–63.

12

N-Nitroso Compounds

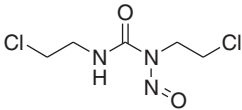
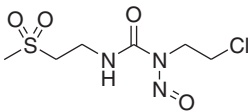
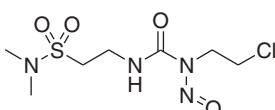
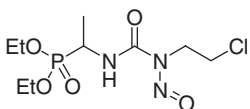
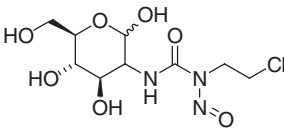
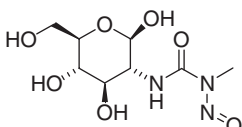
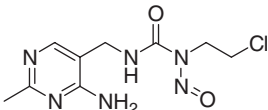
Various *N*-(2-chloroethyl)-*N*-nitrosoureas are being used as oral or parenteral drugs for the treatment of aggressive neoplasms, such as brain or pancreatic tumors, or melanoma (Table 12.1). Nitrosoureas are readily cleaved by nucleophiles and are hence rather unstable. Nucleophilic cleavage yields *N*-nitrosamines, which quickly eliminate water and nitrogen to yield strongly alkylating carbocations (Scheme 12.1). The resulting chloroethylated nucleophiles may alkylate additional nucleophilic functional groups and thus cross-link proteins or nucleic acids. As most other antineoplastics, all nitrosoureas are carcinogenic and mutagenic.



Scheme 12.1 Decomposition of nitrosoureas.

Table 12.1 *N*-Nitrosoureas. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | | | |
|--|-----------|-------|--------------|----------------------|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.5 h | V | 1.7* | LOMUSTINE |
| | F | 100%* | CL | – | Antineoplastic, crosses bbb, |
| | pb | 50%* | Mwt | 233.7 | carcinogenic, mutagenic |
| | ur | – | PSA | 61.8 \AA^2 | Metabolism: hydroxylation of |
| | | | $\log P$ | 2.72 | cyclohexyl group (4- <i>cis</i> and |
| | | | | | <i>trans</i> -hydroxy; $t_{1/2}$ 16–48 h) |
| | | | | | *metabolites on oral dosing of |
| | | | | | drug. |

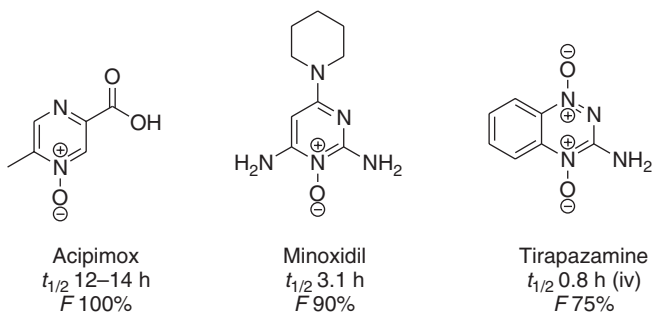
| | | | | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|--|--|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <i>F</i> pb ur | 1.5 ± 2.0 h – 77% – | <i>V</i> CL Mwt PSA log <i>P</i> | 3.3 ± 1.7 56±56 214.1 61.8 Å ² 1.38 | CARMUSTINE, BCNU Antineoplastic, carcinogenic, mutagenic, crosses bbb |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <i>F</i> pb ur | 4 min (iv) Low – – | <i>V</i> CL Mwt PSA log <i>P</i> | – – 257.7 104 Å ² –0.17 | CYSTEMUSTINE Antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <i>F</i> pb ur | 57 ± 22 min 26% (dog) – – | <i>V</i> CL Mwt PSA log <i>P</i> | – – 286.7 108 Å ² 0.77 | TAUROMUSTINE Antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <i>F</i> pb ur | 29 ± 12 min* – – – | <i>V</i> CL Mwt PSA log <i>P</i> | – 28±17 315.7 107 Å ² 1.37 | FOTEMUSTINE *iv Antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <i>F</i> pb ur | 7 min (iv) – – – | <i>V</i> CL Mwt PSA log <i>P</i> | – – 313.7 160 Å ² –0.71 | CHLOROZOTOCIN Antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <i>F</i> pb ur | 15 min* Low – 10–20%* | <i>V</i> CL Mwt PSA log <i>P</i> | 0.7 – 265.2 160 Å ² –1.33 | STREPTOZOTOCIN *iv Antineoplastic, does not cross bbb |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <i>F</i> pb ur | 0.2–1.1 h* – – – | <i>V</i> CL Mwt PSA log <i>P</i> | 1.6 35 272.7 114 Å ² 0.25 | NIMUSTINE, ACNU *iv Antineoplastic |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; *F*, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; *V*, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier.

13

N-Oxides

Pyridine or pyrimidine *N*-oxides are common metabolites of pyridines and pyrimidines. As other metabolites, some *N*-oxides also have made their way to the market and are being used as oral drugs. Despite their high dipole moments, these compounds are orally bioavailable (Scheme 13.1). Typical metabolic transformations include O-sulfation, O-glucuronidation, and reductive cleavage of the N–O bond.



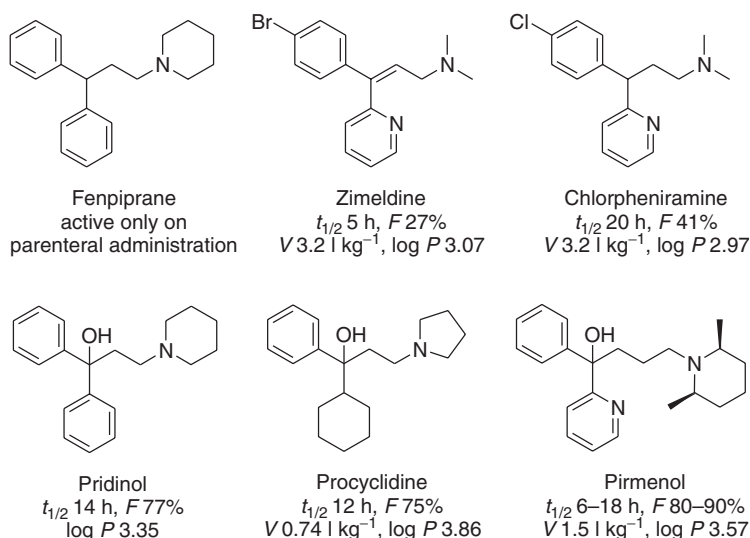
Scheme 13.1 *N*-Oxides as drugs.

14

Alcohols

Hydroxyl groups enhance the solubility and rate of renal excretion of a drug. The lower affinity to liver enzymes may also reduce the first-pass effect and enhance the oral availability of a hydroxylated lead. On the other hand, a high hydrophilicity and large polar surface area can accelerate renal excretion and compromise the ability of a compound to be completely absorbed from the small intestine and to cross membranes, such as the blood–brain barrier (bbb), unless the molecule is very small. Thus, while ethanol ($t_{1/2}$ 0.24 h, F 80%) is well absorbed and even crosses the bbb, polyols such as sorbitol, mannitol, or glycerol have poor oral bioavailabilities. Carbohydrates are usually absorbed by a compound-specific active transport mechanism.

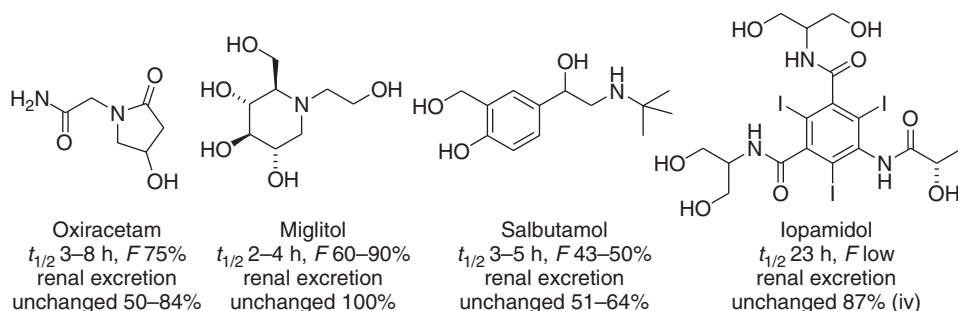
Comparison of fenpiprane, zimeldine, and chlorpheniramine with the tertiary alcohols pridinol, procyclidine, and pirmenol shows that the hydroxyl group can lead to higher oral availability by curbing first-pass metabolism (Scheme 14.1).



Scheme 14.1 Effect of tertiary hydroxyl groups on pharmacokinetics (PK).

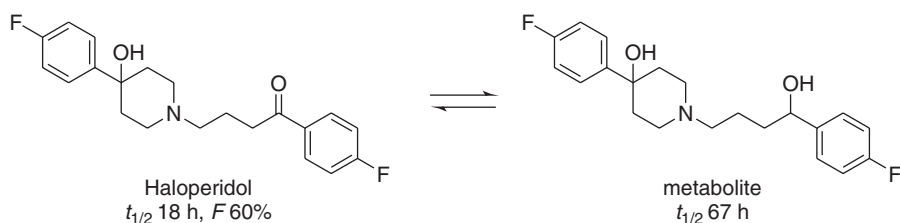
14.1 Metabolism

Many hydrophilic alcohols, such as oxiracetam, mannitol, meglumine, miglitol, the bronchodilator salbutamol, or the contrast agent iopamidol, are barely metabolized, but mostly excreted unchanged in the urine (Scheme 14.2).



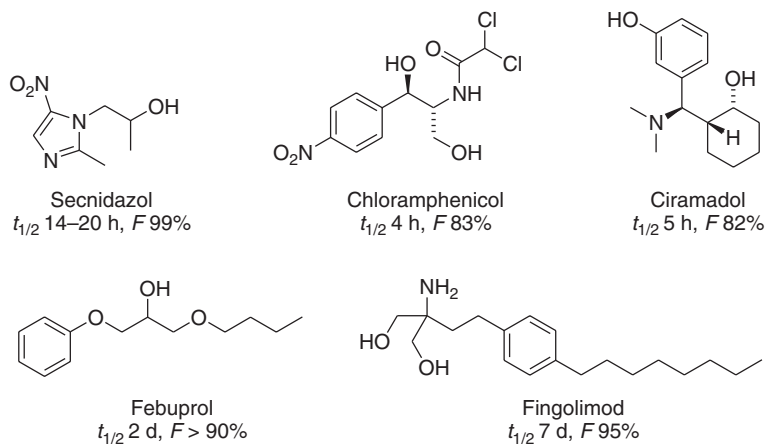
Scheme 14.2 Alcohols as drugs.

Larger, more lipophilic alcohols may, however, undergo some sort of metabolism, either to further facilitate their renal excretion or to degrade the molecule into smaller fragments. Primary and secondary alkanols can be oxidized by alcohol dehydrogenase to aldehydes or ketones, which can be further oxidized to carboxylic acids. The oxidation of secondary alcohols to ketones is reversible, and with some substrates, for instance haloperidol, both the ketone and the alcohol can be detected in plasma (Scheme 14.3).



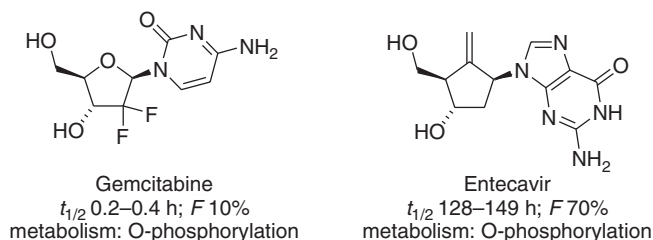
Scheme 14.3 Reversible reduction of haloperidol.

Because the oxidation of primary, purely aliphatic alcohols is usually fast, few drugs contain this functional group. Alcohols with a heteroatom in β - or γ -position, however, are more resistant to oxidation, as illustrated by the examples shown in Scheme 14.4. Secnidazole undergoes hydroxylation at the vinylic methyl group *in vivo*, chloramphenicol is mainly converted into an inactive glucuronide, and the main metabolite of ciramadol is the phenolic glucuronide (Table 14.1).



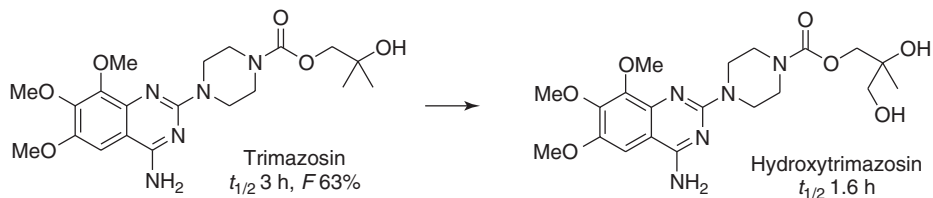
Scheme 14.4 Drugs containing hydroxyl groups.

Drugs with carbohydrate substructures may be metabolized by phosphorylation. This is often the case for antiviral or antineoplastic nucleoside analogs, which are phosphorylated *in vivo* to the corresponding nucleotides and then incorporated into DNA (Scheme 14.5).




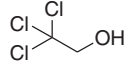
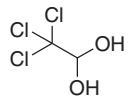
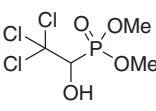
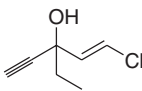
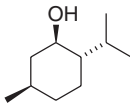
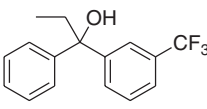
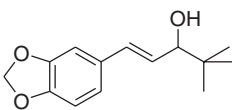
Scheme 14.5 Carbohydrate analogs as drugs.

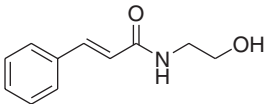
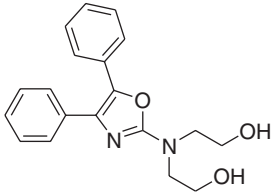
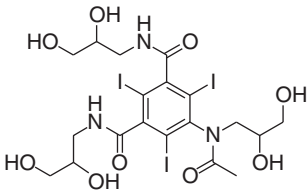
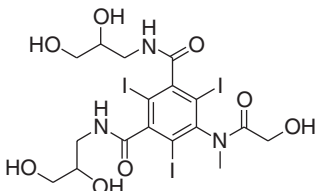
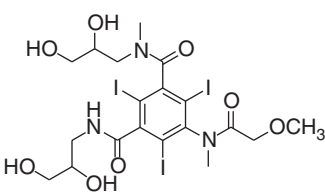
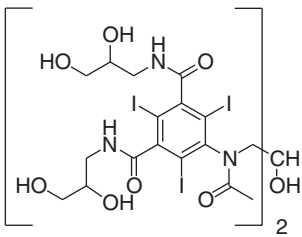
The oxidation of alcohols may be prevented either by introducing fluorine or other electron-withdrawing atoms or groups at the β -position (to prevent α -hydride abstraction) or by choosing a tertiary alcohol instead. Tertiary alcohols can undergo hydroxylation to 1,2-diols, as in the case of the α_1 -adrenergic antagonist trimazosin (Scheme 14.6).



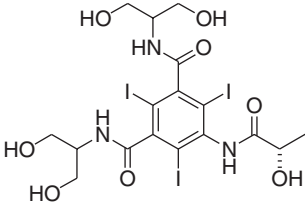
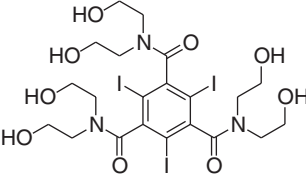
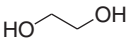
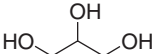
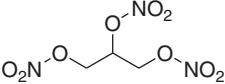
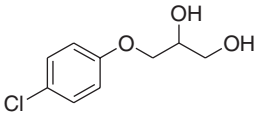
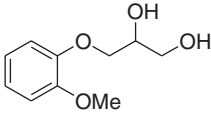
Scheme 14.6 Metabolism of trimazosin.

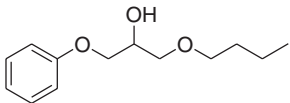
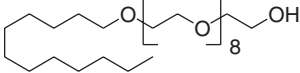
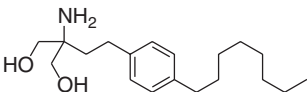
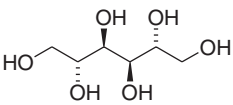
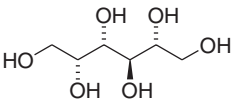
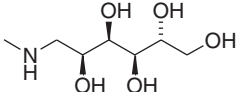
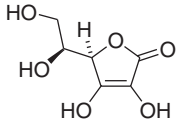
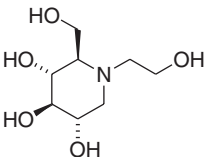
Table 14.1 Aliphatic alcohols, carbohydrates, and related compounds. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ $0.2 \pm 0.1 \text{ h}$ F 80% pb – ur <3% | V 0.54 ± 0.05 CL – Mwt 46.1 PSA 20.2 \AA^2 $\log P$ -0.18 | ETHANOL Recreational drug, hypnotic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–12 h F – pb 70–80% ur – | V 0.9 CL – Mwt 149.4 PSA 20.2 \AA^2 $\log P$ 0.97 | TRICHLOROETHANOL Metabolite of chloral hydrate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–11 h F – pb – ur 0% | V 0.6 CL – Mwt 165.4 PSA 40.5 \AA^2 $\log P$ 0.99 | CHLORAL HYDRATE Hypnotic, sedative Metabolism: reduction to trichloroethanol, then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.3–2.5 h F – pb – ur 2% | V – CL 8.2–9.3 Mwt 257.4 PSA 65.6 \AA^2 $\log P$ 0.49 | METRIFONATE Anthelmintic Metabolism: rearrangement to dichlorvos (2,2-dichlorovinyl dimethyl phosphate) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–20 h F – pb 35–50% ur Negligible | V 3.5 CL 1.7–2.0 Mwt 144.6 PSA 20.2 \AA^2 $\log P$ 1.19 | ETHCHLORVYNOL Hypnotic, anticonvulsant, muscle relaxant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h* F – pb – ur 46–57%* | V – CL – Mwt 156.3 PSA 20.2 \AA^2 $\log P$ 3.22 | MENTHOL *glucuronide No menthol detectable in plasma after oral dosing |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ $21 \pm 2 \text{ h}$ F – pb – ur 0% | V 41 ± 18 CL 26 ± 9 Mwt 280.3 PSA 20.2 \AA^2 $\log P$ 4.21 | FLUMECINOL Hepatic enzyme inducer Metabolism: phenyl and ethyl hydroxylation, then conjugation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–14 h F $21 \pm 9\%$ pb 99% ur Negligible | V 1 CL 6–29 Mwt 234.3 PSA 38.7 \AA^2 $\log P$ 3.78 | STIRIPENTOL Antiepileptic, racemic Metabolism: O-glucuronidation, <i>tert</i> -butyl hydroxylation, isomerization of allyl alcohol to propanone, acetal hydrolysis, then catechol O-methylation |

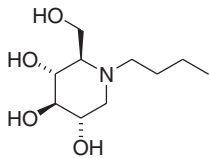
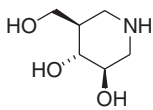
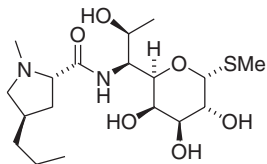
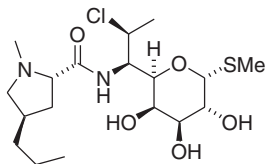
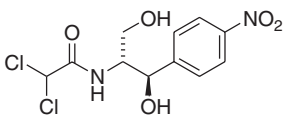
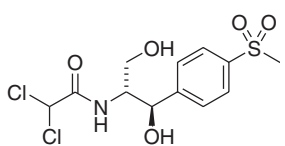
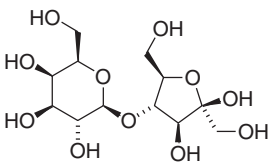
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|---|---|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h F 30% pb – ur 1% | V – CL – Mwt 191.2 PSA 49.3 Å ² log P 0.44 | IDROCILAMIDE Muscle relaxant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 41 min (rat) F – pb – ur – | V 2.1 (rat) CL 34.5 (rat) Mwt 324.4 PSA 69.7 Å ² log P 2.35 | DITAZOL Antiinflammatory Metabolites: <i>N</i> -desalkyl, <i>N</i> , <i>N</i> -bisdesalkyl, hydroxy, benzil, hydroxybenzil |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.9 h F – pb 0% ur 90% | V 0.19 CL 2 Mwt 821.1 PSA 200 Å ² log P –2.92 | IOHEXOL X-ray contrast agent; triiodobenzoic acid is too highly plasma bound and too toxic. This toxicity is reduced by conversion to the more hydrophilic iohexol. |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.8 h F – pb – ur 87–92% | V 0.28 CL 1.6–1.7 Mwt 777.1 PSA 180 Å ² log P –2.93 | IOMEPROL X-ray contrast agent |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.6 h F – pb 1% ur 85% | V 0.2 CL 1.4 Mwt 791.1 PSA 169 Å ² log P –2.66 | IOPROMIDE X-ray contrast agent |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.2 h F – pb – ur 97% | V 0.28 CL 1.7 Mwt 1550.2 PSA 339 Å ² log P –4.07 | IODIXANOL X-ray contrast agent |

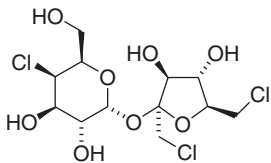
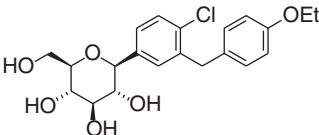
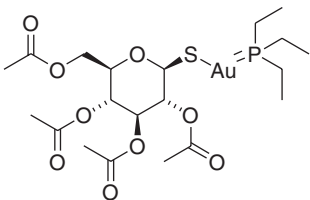
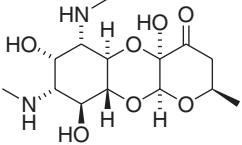
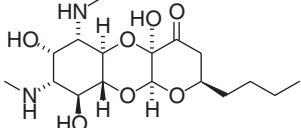
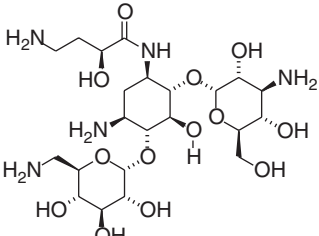
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F – pb 0% ur 86% | V 0.2–0.3 CL 1.9 Mwt 777.1 PSA 188 Å ² log P –2.55 | IOPAMIDOL X-ray contrast agent |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.7 h F – pb – ur 87% | V 0.2 CL – Mwt 849.2 PSA 182 Å ² log P –3.02 | IOSIMIDE X-ray contrast agent |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–9 h F 92–100% pb – ur 20% | V 0.5–0.8 CL – Mwt 62.1 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P –1.36 | ETHYLENE GLYCOL Antifreezer Metabolism: oxidation to hydroxyacetaldehyde, glycolic acid, and glyoxylic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5–1.2 h F >80% pb – ur 7–14% | V 0.2–0.3 CL 2 Mwt 92.1 PSA 60.7 Å ² log P –1.85 | GLYCEROL Osmotic diuretic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2±1 min F <1%* pb – ur <1% | V 3.3±1.2 CL 230±90 Mwt 227.1 PSA 165 Å ² log P 2.15 | NITROGLYCERIN *sublingual: 38±26% Antianginal Metabolism: denitration (to glycerol dinitrate, $t_{1/2}$ 40 min) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–4 h F – pb – ur 0% | V 1.3 CL – Mwt 202.6 PSA 49.7 Å ² log P 1.71 | CHLORPHENESIN Topical antifungal |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h F High pb 37% ur – | V 1 CL – Mwt 198.2 PSA 58.9 Å ² log P 0.46 | GUAIFENESIN Expectorant Metabolism: oxidation of primary alcohol to CO ₂ H |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 d F >90% pb 60–70% ur Low | V – CL – Mwt 224.3 PSA 38.7 Å ² log P 2.91 | FEBUPROL Choleretic Metabolites: 4-hydroxyphenyl ($t_{1/2}$ 3 h), glucuronide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h (iv) F – pb 64% ur – | V 0.4 CL 3 Mwt 582.8 PSA 103.3 Å ² log P 3.42 | POLIDOCANOL Local anesthetic, antipruritic, spermicide Metabolism: oxidative degradation of alkyl chain |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7±2 d F 95% pb 99.7% ur – | V 18±4 CL 1.6 Mwt 307.5 PSA 66.5 Å ² log P 4.2 | FINGOLIMOD Immunomodulator Active metabolite: phosphate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.3–1.7 h F 7–20% pb 0% ur 80–90% | V 0.5 CL 7 Mwt 182.2 PSA 121 Å ² log P –3.26 | MANNITOL Osmotic diuretic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.2–0.6 h* F Low pb 0% ur <3% | V 0.2 CL – Mwt 182.2 PSA 121 Å ² log P –3.26 | SORBITOL *iv Sweetener, laxative |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.6 h F – pb – ur 91% | V – CL – Mwt 195.2 PSA 113 Å ² log P –2.51 | MEGLUMINE Drug excipient |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–12 h F 100%* pb 24% ur 0% | V – CL 1.1 Mwt 176.1 PSA 107 Å ² log P –2.41 | ASCORBIC ACID, VITAMIN C *for 200 mg dose Larger doses: lower F , higher ur Metabolites: 2-sulfate, dehydroascorbic acid (diketone), oxalic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h F 60–90% pb <4% ur 100% | V 0.28 CL 1.7 Mwt 207.2 PSA 104 Å ² log P –2.21 | MIGLITOL Antidiabetic; no metabolism |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–7 h F 97% pb 0% ur 50% | V 0.7–1.3 CL 3.5 Mwt 219.3 PSA 84.2 Å ² log P 0.03 | MIGLUSTAT Antidiabetic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 147.2 PSA 72.7 Å ² log P –1.80 | ISOFAGOMINE Treatment of Gaucher's disease |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.1±1.5 h F 25±5% pb 85±2% ur 14±6% | V 1.3±0.2 CL 2.1±0.5 Mwt 406.5 PSA 148 Å ² log P 0.72 | LINCOMYCIN Antibacterial Metabolism: oxidation to sulfoxide, N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.9±0.7 h F 87% pb 93.6±0.2% ur 13% | V 1.1±0.3 CL 4.7±1.3 Mwt 425.0 PSA 128 Å ² log P 1.75 | CLINDAMYCIN Bacteriostatic Metabolites: sulfoxide, N-desmethyl, glucuronide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4±2 h F 83±8% pb 53±5% ur 25±15% | V 0.94±0.06 CL 2.4±0.2 Mwt 323.1 PSA 115 Å ² log P 1.10 | CHLORAMPHENICOL Antibacterial, antirickettsial, carcinogenic Metabolism: reduction of nitro group by intestinal bacteria |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–2.4 h F 60%* pb 10–20% ur 60% | V 0.75 CL – Mwt 356.2 PSA 112 Å ² log P –0.27 | THIAMPHENICOL *calves Antibacterial Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F 0.4–2.0% pb – ur <3% | V – CL – Mwt 342.3 PSA 197 Å ² log P –2.97 | LACTULOSE Laxative |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–23 h F 11–40% pb – ur 6–18% | V – CL – Mwt 397.6 PSA 129 Å ² log P 0.23 | SUCRALOSE, SPLENDA Artificial sweetener Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17 h F >75% pb 96% ur <2.5% | V 0.8 (dog) CL 1.5 (dog) Mwt 408.9 PSA 99.4 Å ² log P 4.42 | DAPAGLIFLOZIN Glucose transporter inhibitor, antidiabetic Metabolism: glucuronidation, O-deethylation, hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 21±4 h F 20±5% pb 60% ur 15% | V/F 0.045 CL/ F 0.025±0.016 Mwt 678.5 PSA 114.5 Å ² log P 0.81 | AURANOFIN Antiarthritic Metabolism: deacetylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 h F 10% (pig) pb Low ur 70–100%* | V 0.13 CL 0.99 Mwt 332.4 PSA 130 Å ² log P 0.75 | SPECTINOMYCIN *iv Antibacterial, no metabolism |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11 h (iv) F 7% pb – ur – | V 0.7 CL 1.7 Mwt 374.4 PSA 130 Å ² log P 2.27 | TROSPECTOMYCIN Antibacterial |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h (im) F – pb 0–11% ur 98% (im) | V 0.16 CL 1.1 Mwt 585.6 PSA 332 Å ² log P –5.26 | AMIKACIN Antibacterial for im or iv administration For review, see: Busscher, G.F., Rutjes, F.P.J.T., van Delft, F.L. 2-Deoxystreptamine: central scaffold of aminoglycoside antibiotics. <i>Chem. Rev.</i> 2005, 105, 775–791. |

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| | $t_{1/2}$ 24 h (iv) F – pb 5% ur 75% (im) | V 0.32 CL 1.3 Mwt 569.6 PSA 298 Å ² log P –4.68 | ISEPAMICIN Aminoglycoside antibiotic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 0.25 CL 1.5 Mwt 454.5 PSA 262 Å ² log P –3.95 | RIBOSTAMYCIN Aminoglycoside antibiotic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.4 h (iv) F – pb – ur High | V 0.13 CL 0.80 Mwt 451.5 PSA 248 Å ² log P –3.58 | DIBEKACIN Antibacterial |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F Low pb <10% ur 60% | V 0.33±0.08 CL 0.98 Mwt 467.5 PSA 268 Å ² log P –4.22 | TOBRAMYCIN Antibacterial |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.1±0.2 h F Low pb 0% ur 90%* | V 0.26±0.05 CL 1.4±0.2 Mwt 483.5 PSA 288 Å ² log P –4.02 | KANAMYCIN B *iv Antibacterial |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 h F Low pb <10% ur >90%* | V 0.3±0.1 CL 0.82 Mwt 449.6 PSA 213.7 Å ² log P –4.89 | GENTAMICIN *iv Antibacterial |

| | | | |
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h F 0% pb <10% ur 85±5%* | V 0.20±0.02 CL 1.3±0.2 Mwt 475.6 PSA 200 Å ² log P –1.84 | NETILMICIN *iv Antibacterial |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F Negligible pb – ur High | V/F 0.4 CL/F 1.8 Mwt 615.6 PSA 347 Å ² log P –5.80 | PAROMOMYCIN Antibacterial |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3–9 h F 0.5–1.7% pb 15% ur 94% (iv) | V 0.32 CL 143 Mwt 645.6 PSA 329 Å ² log P –7.91 | ACARBOSE α-Glucosidase, glucoamylase, and sucrase inhibitor, antidiabetic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6.7±1.7 d F 95% pb 97±0.5% ur 32±15% | V 0.54±0.14 CL 0.06±0.02 Mwt 764.9 PSA 183 Å ² log P 2.74 | DIGITOXIN Na-K-ATPase membrane pump inhibitor, cardiac digitalis glycoside Active metabolite: digoxin |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 38–42 h F 70–80% pb 20–30% ur 70–80% | V 4–7 CL 1.8 Mwt 780.9 PSA 203 Å ² log P 1.29 | DIGOXIN Na-K-ATPase membrane pump inhibitor, cardiac digitalis glycoside for treatment of atrial fibrillation |

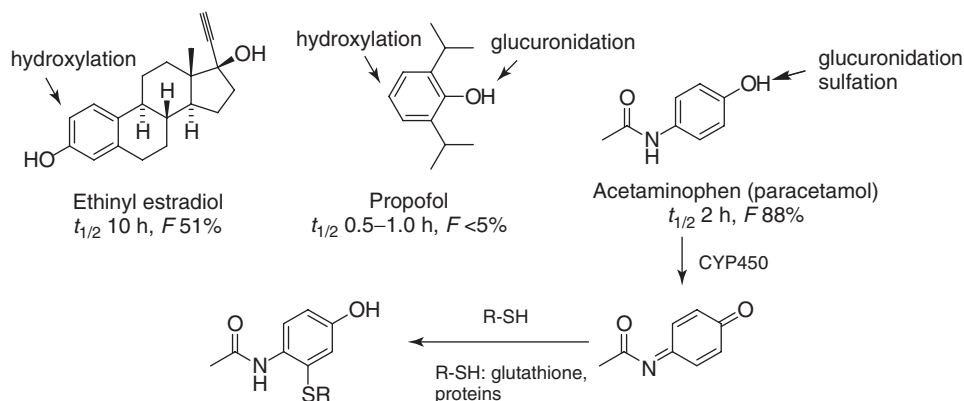
$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL , clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

15

Phenols

Phenol has been used as antiseptic since 1867, when Joseph Lister, professor of surgery at the University of Glasgow, published his first article on the use of phenol in “antiseptic surgery.” The antiseptic properties of phenol had, however, already been noticed by the discoverer of phenol (“carbolic acid”), Friedlieb Runge, in 1833. Today, phenol and low-molecular-weight phenols are important antiseptics used in numerous products, such as toothpaste, soap, and other detergents [1]. Other important drugs containing a phenol substructure are antipyretics (paracetamol), steroids, and analogs of catecholamines [2] (see also Table 15.1).

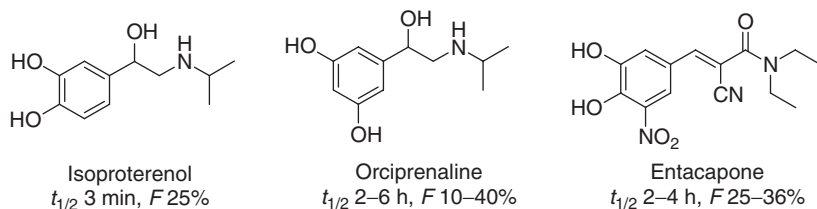
The most common metabolic transformation of phenols is O-glucuronidation and O-sulfation. If the 2- or 4-position of a phenol is unsubstituted, aromatic hydroxylation may occur. Phenols with hydroxyl, alkoxy, or amino group in ortho or para position may be oxidized to quinones. The kinetics of these processes vary widely and are difficult to estimate. Some examples of phenol metabolism are shown in Scheme 15.1.



Scheme 15.1 Metabolism of phenols.

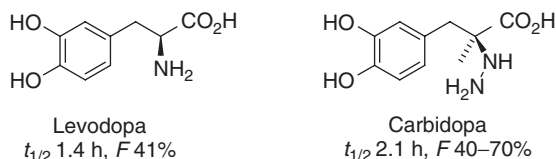
Some catechols (1,2-dihydroxybenzenes) can be methylated at high rates by catechol-*O*-methyltransferase (COMT). This is the reason for the short half-lives of dopamine, adrenaline, isoproterenol, and related catecholamines. By replacing the catechol substructure with 1,3-dihydroxybenzene, the plasma half-life of such

phenols can be significantly prolonged. Electron-withdrawing substituents may also block methylation of catechols by COMT [3], as does the nitro group in the COMT inhibitor entacapone (Scheme 15.2).



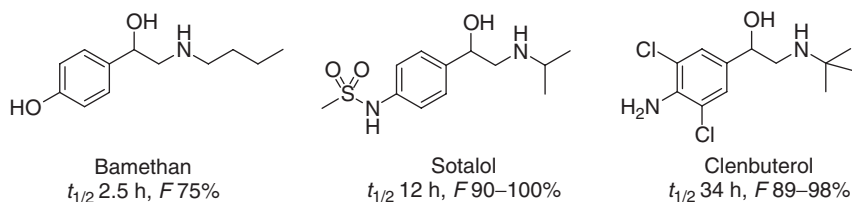
Scheme 15.2 Dihydroxybenzenes as drugs.

Simultaneous dosing of a COMT inhibitor, such as entacapone, is another strategy to increase the half-life of catechols. The effect of levodopa (treatment for Parkinson's disease) can be prolonged by the peripheral decarboxylase inhibitor carbidopa (Scheme 15.3). The latter suppresses the peripheral conversion of levodopa into dopamine, so that larger quantities of levodopa can reach the CNS, where decarboxylation to dopamine occurs. Both the absorption from the small bowel and the crossing of the blood–brain barrier (bbb) of levodopa are mediated by an active transport system for aromatic amino acids. Carbidopa does not cross the bbb.



Scheme 15.3

If a metabolically labile phenol is important for biological activity of a lead, the aromatic hydroxyl group may be replaced by a bioisostere. Phenol bioisosteres include benzpyrazoles, benzimidazoles, anilines, sulfonamides of anilines, and sometimes fluorobenzenes. The half-life of the vasodilator bamethan can, for instance, be significantly enhanced by replacing the phenolic hydroxyl group by a methanesulfonylamino group or an amino group (Scheme 15.4).

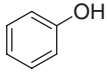
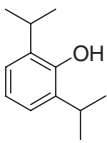
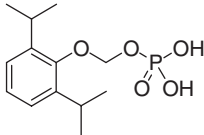
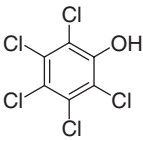
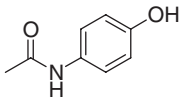


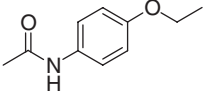
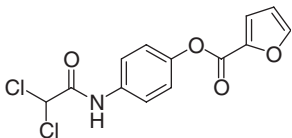
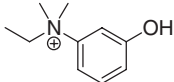
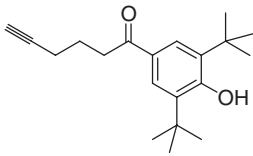
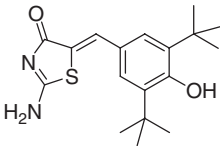
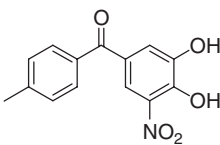
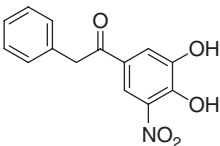
Scheme 15.4 Bioisosteres of phenols.

References

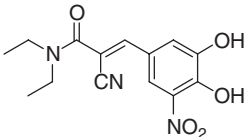
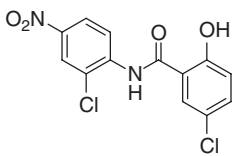
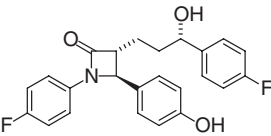
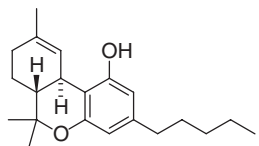
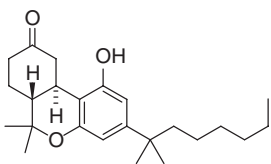
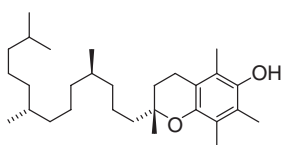
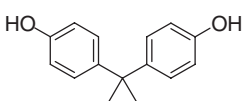
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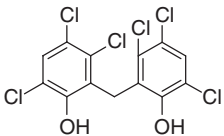
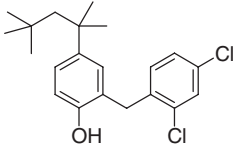
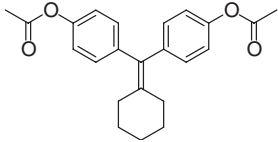
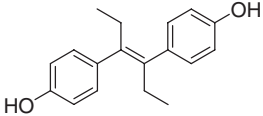
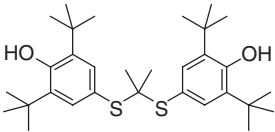
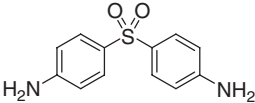
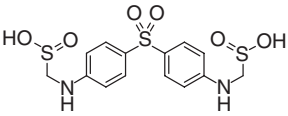
Table 15.1 Phenols and related compounds. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-------------------------|--------------|----------------------|---------------------------------------|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1–5 h | V | – | PHENOL |
| | F | 90% | CL | – | Topical anesthetic and |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 94.1 | antiseptic |
| | ur | 52% | PSA | 20.2 \AA^2 | Metabolism: |
| | | | $\log P$ | 1.54 | glucuronidation, sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 0.5–1.0 h | V | 3–14 | PROPOFOL |
| | F | <5% | CL | 19–33 | Anesthetic; Metabolism: |
| | pb | 96–99% | Mwt | 178.3 | aromatic hydroxylation |
| | ur | <0.3% | PSA | 20.2 \AA^2 | (position 4), sulfation, |
| | | | $\log P$ | 3.66 | glucuronidation; Prodrug: fospropofol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 0.8–0.9 h* | V | 0.33 | FOSPROPOFOL |
| | F | – | CL | 4.3–6.0 | *iv |
| | pb | 98% | Mwt | 288.3 | Prodrug of propofol |
| | ur | <0.02%* | PSA | 85.8 \AA^2 | |
| | | | $\log P$ | 2.70 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 27–35 h | V | 0.35 | PENTACHLOROPHENOL |
| | F | 91%* | CL | 0.02 | *rat |
| | pb | >96% | Mwt | 266.3 | Insecticide, herbicide |
| | ur | 74% | PSA | 20.2 \AA^2 | Metabolism: |
| | | | $\log P$ | 5.12 | glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | $2.0 \pm 0.4 \text{ h}$ | V | 0.95 ± 0.12 | ACETAMINOPHEN, PARACETAMOL |
| | F | $88 \pm 15\%$ | CL | 5.0 ± 1.4 | Analgesic, hepatotoxic |
| | pb | Negligible | Mwt | 151.2 | Metabolites: <i>O</i> -glucuronide, |
| | ur | $3 \pm 1\%$ | PSA | 49.3 \AA^2 | <i>O</i> -sulfate, quinoneimine, |
| | | | $\log P$ | 0.48 | conjugate with glutathione |

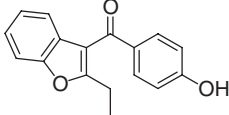
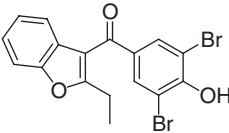
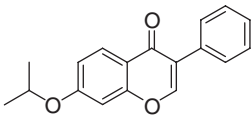
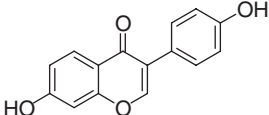
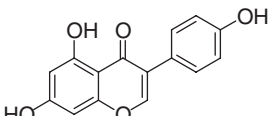
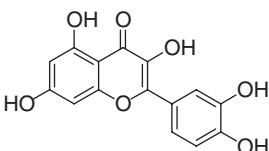
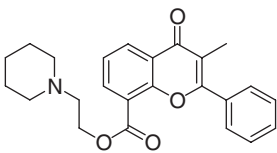
| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.7–1.5 h F Low pb 33% ur 0.1% | V 1–2 CL * Mwt 179.2 PSA 38.3 Å ² log P 1.66 | PHENACETIN *equal to hepatic blood flow Analgesic; extensive first pass metabolism (O-deethylation, N-deacetylation, N-hydroxylation); withdrawn in 1983 because of hepatotoxicity |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 h* F 60–90%* pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 234.1 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P 1.67 | DILOXANIDE FUROATE *phenol on oral dosing of ester Amebicide; Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.8±0.6 h F Low pb Low ur 65% | V 1.1±0.2 CL 9.2±3.2 Mwt 166.2 PSA 20.2 Å ² log P –2.07 | EDROPHONIUM Cholinergic, antidote to curare |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 36 h (iv) F 100% (rat) pb – ur – | V 30 CL 9.9 Mwt 300.4 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 5.8 | TEBUFELONE Antiinflammatory, hepatotoxic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 100–112 h F 99% (rat) pb – ur <0.2% | V – CL – Mwt 332.5 PSA 101 Å ² log P 4.74 | DARBUFELONE Antiinflammatory |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1–1.3 h F 60–72% pb 99.8% ur 0.5% | V 0.12 CL 1.7–1.9 Mwt 273.2 PSA 103 Å ² log P 4.15 | TOLCAPONE COMT inhibitor, antiparkinsonian Metabolism: glucuronidation, O-methylation of 3-hydroxy, reduction of nitro to amino, hydroxylation of methyl, oxidation of methyl to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F >55% (rat) pb >99% ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 273.2 PSA 103 Å ² log P 3.84 | NEBICAPONE COMT inhibitor Metabolism: glucuronidation, O-methylation |

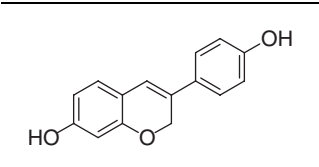
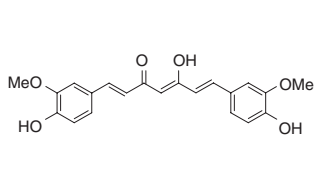
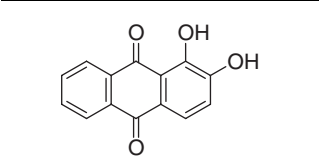
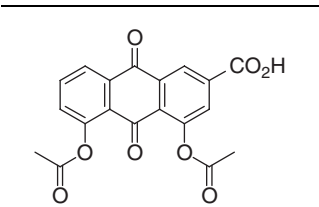
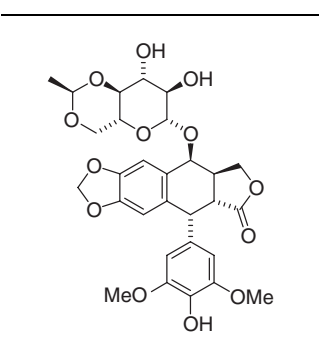
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| | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.4–3.5 h F 25–36% pb 98% ur <0.5% | V 0.28 CL 12 Mwt 305.3 PSA 130 Å ² log P 2.38 | ENTACAPONE COMT inhibitor; antiparkinsonian Metabolism: <i>E</i> to <i>Z</i> isomerization, glucuronidation, hydrogenation, and cleavage of C=C double bond |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7 h F 10% (rat) pb – ur – | V 0.9 (rat) CL 20 (rat, iv) Mwt 327.1 PSA 95.2 Å ² log P 3.77 | NICLOSAMIDE Anthelmintic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 22 h F Unknown pb 99.7% ur 2% | V – CL – Mwt 409.4 PSA 60.8 Å ² log P 3.96 | EZETIMIBE Oral antilipemic; active metabolite: phenol glucuronide Further metabolism: oxidation of secondary alcohol to ketone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 32±12 h F 8±4% pb 95% ur <1% | V 8.9±4.2 CL 3.5±0.9 Mwt 314.5 PSA 29.5 Å ² log P 6.84 | DRONABINOL, THC Antiemetic, appetite stimulant Active metabolite: 11-hydroxy |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F 20% pb – ur 22% (iv) | V 12.5 CL 0.7 Mwt 372.5 PSA 46.5 Å ² log P 7.25 | NABILONE Antiemetic Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol, hydroxylation at CH ₂ CH ₃ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 81±19 h F 35–85% pb – ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 430.7 PSA 29.5 Å ² log P 11.0 | D-α-TOCOPHEROL Vitamin Prodrug: acetate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <6 h F Low pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 228.3 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P 3.64 | BISPHENOL A Monomer for polycarbonates and epoxy resins, fungicide Metabolism: glucuronidation |

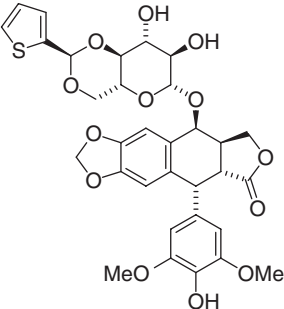
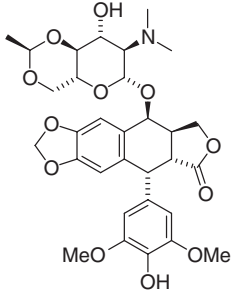
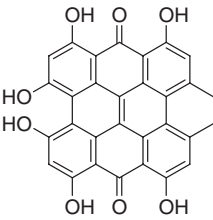
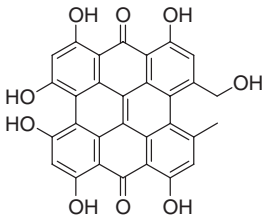
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|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–44 h F – pb 92% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 406.9 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P 7.17 | HEXACHLOROPHENE Antiseptic, disinfectant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2 h F High pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 365.3 PSA 20.2 Å ² log P 8.25 | CLOFIBRATE, CLOFIBRATE Antibiotic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18–29 h* F – pb – ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 364.4 PSA 52.6 Å ² log P 4.66 | CYCLOFENIL *diphenol on oral dosing of diacetate; gonad-stimulating principle; withdrawn because of hepatotoxicity |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 28 h F – pb 50–95% ur – | V 5* CL – Mwt 268.4 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P 5.33 | DIETHYLSTILBESTROL *monkey; Estrogen; Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation to catechol, hydroxylation of methyl groups; withdrawn in 1975 as it causes adenocarcinoma of vagina in daughters after use in early pregnancy |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 23–47 d F 2–8% pb – ur <2% | V – CL – Mwt 516.8 PSA 91.1 Å ² log P 9.00 | PROBUCOL Hypolipidemic; poor absorption (1–14%) because of poor solubility Metabolism: oxidative cyclization to dispiroquinone (bond formation between the 4-positions of the phenols), then formation of sulfur-free diphenoquinone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 28±9 h F 93±8% pb 73±1% ur 15% | V 1.0±0.1 CL 0.60±0.17 Mwt 248.3 PSA 94.6 Å ² log P 0.99 | DAPSONE Antibacterial (leprostatic) Metabolism: N-hydroxylation, N-acetylation; causes methemoglobin formation and hemolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–8 h F – pb 69% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 404.5 PSA 180 Å ² log P –1.91 | SULFOXONE Antibacterial (leprostatic) Metabolism: hydrolysis to dapsone |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|---------------|-------|----------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 14 ± 2 h* | V | – | BENZARONE |
| | F | – | CL | – | *after oral administration of |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 266.3 | benzbromarone |
| | ur | – | PSA | 50.4 \AA^2 | Capillary protectant |
| | | | log P | 4.73 | Metabolism: O-sulfation, O-glucuronidation, ethyl hydroxylation; no unchanged benzarone can be detected in plasma after oral administration |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3 ± 1 h | V | 19 | BENZBROMARONE |
| | F | – | CL | – | Uricosuric, hepatotoxic |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 424.1 | Metabolism: debromination to |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 50.4 \AA^2 | benzarone |
| | | | log P | 6.65 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 10 h | V | – | IPRIFLAVONE |
| | F | 24% (rat) | CL | – | Treatment of osteoporosis |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 280.3 | Metabolism: phenyl |
| | ur | | PSA | 35.5 \AA^2 | 4-hydroxylation, |
| | | | log P | 4.25 | O-deisopropylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 8 h | V | 3–5 | DAIDZEIN |
| | F | 2–10%* | CL | 7.7 | *rat |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 254.2 | Natural isoflavone, phytoestrogen |
| | ur | 30–50% | PSA | 66.8 \AA^2 | Metabolism: glucuronidation, |
| | | | log P | 2.63 | sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 10 h | V | 2.5 | GENISTEIN |
| | F | 20–40%* | CL | – | *rat |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 270.2 | Natural isoflavone: phytoestrogen |
| | ur | 9% | PSA | 87.0 \AA^2 | Metabolism: glucuronidation, |
| | | | log P | 3.11 | sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 0.6 h (iv) | V | 0.1 | QUERCETIN |
| | F | <1% | CL | 11 | Capillary protectant |
| | pb | 99% | Mwt | 302.2 | |
| | ur | 0.5% | PSA | 127 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log P | 1.99 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 5 min | V | – | FLAVOXATE |
| | F | 100% | CL | – | *acid |
| | pb | 99.5%* | Mwt | 391.5 | Antispasmodic: does not cross bbb |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 55.8 \AA^2 | Metabolism: hydrolysis of ester |
| | | | log P | 4.27 | |

| | | | |
|--|---|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.7 h (iv) F 1% pb – ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 240.3 PSA 49.7 Å ² log P 3.35 | IDRONOXIL Proapoptotic agent: oncolytic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ short F 0% pb – ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 368.4 PSA 93.1 Å ² log P 3.07 | CURCUMIN Natural dye and antioxidant Metabolism: glucuronidation, sulfation, hydrogenation of C=C double bonds, reduction of ketone to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h F – pb – ur 18–36% | V – CL – Mwt 240.2 PSA 74.6 Å ² log P 2.91 | ALIZARIN Biological stain Metabolism: O-glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–8 h* F 35%* pb 99%* ur 20%* | V – CL – Mwt 368.3 PSA 124 Å ² log P 3.13 | DIACEREIN, DIACETYLRHEIN *rhein on oral dosing of diacerein Antiarthritic Metabolism: deacetylation to rhein, then glucuronidation, sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±4 h F 52±17% pb 96±0.4% ur 35±5% | V 0.36±0.15 CL 0.68±0.23 Mwt 588.6 PSA 161 Å ² log P 0.28 | ETOPOSIDE Antineoplastic |

(continued overleaf)




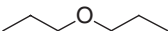
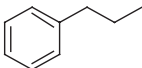
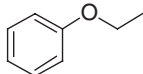
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±3 h F 20–71% pb 99% ur 8±2% | V 0.22±0.05 CL 0.37±0.13 Mwt 656.7 PSA 189 Å ² log P 1.56 | TENIPOSIDE Antineoplastic Metabolism: O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–12 h F 100% pb 99% ur 3–26% (iv) | V 0.3 CL 0.4 Mwt 615.6 PSA 143.9 Å ² log P 1.14 | NK-611 Antineoplastic Metabolites: <i>N</i> -desmethyl, <i>cis</i> -lactone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25–27 h F – pb – ur – | V 0.25 CL 0.13 Mwt 504.4 PSA 156 Å ² log P 10.8 | HYPERICIN Antidepressant, phototoxic component of St. John's wort Metabolism: negligible |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16–36 h F – pb – ur – | V 0.56 CL 0.62 Mwt 520.4 PSA 176 Å ² log P 9.29 | PSEUDOHYPERICIN Dye from <i>Hypericum perforatum</i> (St. John's wort) |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; THC, tetrahydrocannabinol.

16

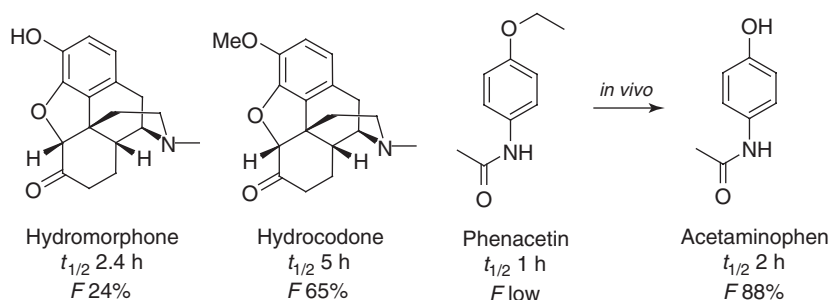
Ethers

Dialkyl ethers are more soluble in water than alkanes and can, therefore, be used to improve the solubility and prevent first-pass metabolism of hydrophobic leads. The replacement of a CH_2 group by oxygen leads to compounds with diverging boiling and melting points, which indicates that oxygen is not a good bioisostere of the methylene group. Such modification may in fact lead to compounds with quite different properties (Scheme 16.1).

| | | | | | | |
|--------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| bp | 49 °C | 67 °C | 98 °C | 91 °C | 159 °C | 170 °C |
| mp | −94 °C | −108 °C | −91 °C | −122 °C | −100 °C | −30 °C |
| log <i>P</i> | 2.64 | 0.47 | 4.27 | 2.06 | 3.74 | 2.68 |

Scheme 16.1

If a lead contains a phenol substructure and shows poor absorption or extensive first-pass metabolism, etherification may enhance oral bioavailability. Because alkoxyarenes are often rapidly dealkylated *in vivo*, some ethers may serve as prodrug of alcohols or phenols. Thus, codeine or hydrocodone are more orally bioavailable than their corresponding phenolic metabolites morphine and hydromorphone (Scheme 16.2). For phenacetin, metabolic deethylation is so fast that it can hardly be detected in plasma, and its apparent oral availability is, therefore, low. Because the main metabolite of phenacetin, acetaminophen, has good oral availability, the latter can be used as analgetic as well. In fact, phenacetin is more damaging to the kidneys and liver than acetaminophen and is, therefore, no longer available in many countries. Ethoxybenzenes should be considered as metabolically questionable and, if possible, avoided.

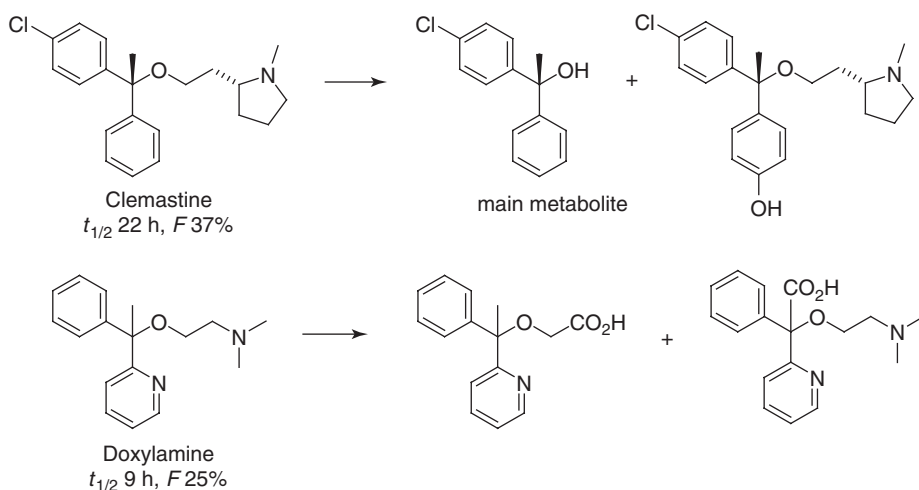


Scheme 16.2 Effect of phenol O-alkylation on PK.

16.1 Metabolism

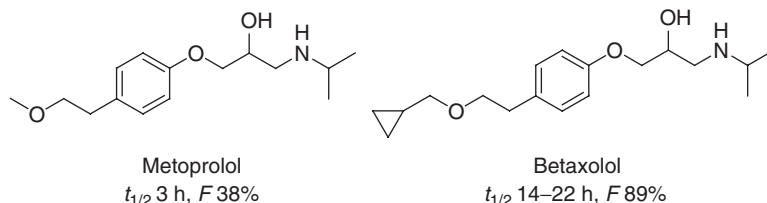
Alkyl ethers with at least one hydrogen atom in α -position may be α -hydroxylated via hydride abstraction. The resulting hemiacetal can fragment into an alcohol and an aldehyde or a ketone.

With the exception of some methoxy- or ethoxyarenes, most ethers are metabolized rather slowly, and numerous long-acting drugs contain ether substructures (Table 16.1). Ethers of 2-alkoxyethanols (e.g., poly(ethylene glycol) [1]) or 2-aminoethanols are more stable than simple alkyl ethers, as a comparison of some of the metabolites of clemastine and doxylamine shows (Scheme 16.3). The main metabolite of clemastine is the tertiary alcohol resulting from oxidative ether cleavage; no such cleavage occurs in doxylamine.



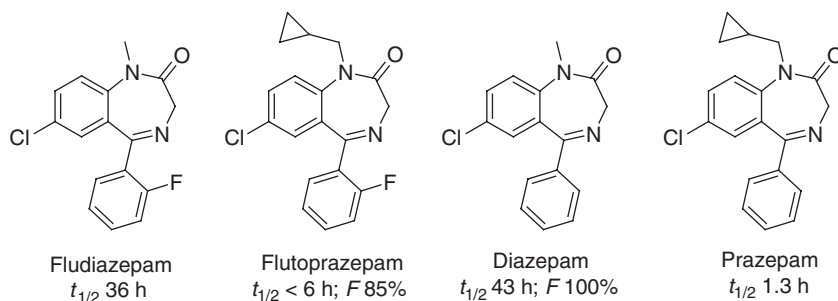
Scheme 16.3 Metabolism of clemastine and doxylamine.

If a lead contains an unstable alkyl ether, its cleavage may be prevented by conversion into a cyclopropylmethylether. One instance of this strategy is the long-acting β -blocker betaxolol (Scheme 16.4).



Scheme 16.4 Stabilization of methyl ethers by cyclopropylation.

The conversion of methyl groups into cyclopropylmethyl groups does, however, not always lead to drugs with better pharmacokinetics (PK). The lipophilic benzodiazepines flutoprazepam and prazepam, for instance, are quickly N-dealkylated *in vivo* and have shorter half-lives than their methyl analogs fludiazepam and diazepam (Scheme 16.5).



Scheme 16.5 Effect of cyclopropylation in benzodiazepines.

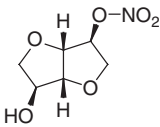
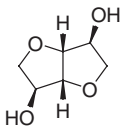
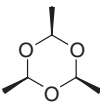
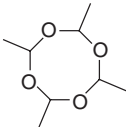
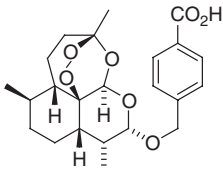
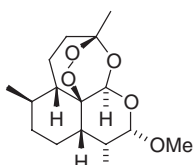
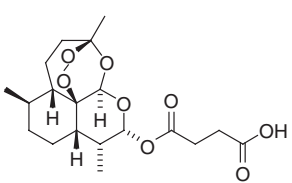
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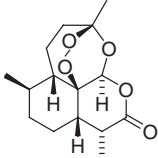
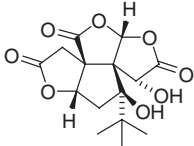
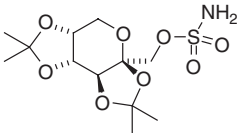
- Harris, J.M. and Chess, R.B. (2003) Effect of pegylation on pharmaceuticals. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*, 2, 214–221.

Table 16.1 Ethers, acetals, and related compounds. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | | | |
|--|-----------|-----------------|---------|---------------------|-------------------------------------|
| | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.0 ± 0.5 h | V | 3.9 ± 1.5 | ISOSORBIDE DINITRATE Vasodilator |
| | F | $22 \pm 14\%$ | CL | 45 ± 20 | |
| | pb | $28 \pm 12\%$ | Mwt | 236.1 | |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 129 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log P | 0.95 | |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5±1 h F 93±13% pb 0–5% ur <5% | V 0.8±0.3 CL 6±2 Mwt 191.1 PSA 93.7 Å ² $\log P$ −0.18 | ISOSORBIDE MONONITRATE Vasodilator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–10 h F >80% pb – ur High | V – CL – Mwt 146.1 PSA 58.9 Å ² $\log P$ −1.19 | ISOSORBIDE Osmotic agent, treatment of hydrocephalus |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±3 h F – pb – ur Negligible | V 1.7 CL 2.2 Mwt 132.2 PSA 27.7 Å ² $\log P$ 1.02 | PARALDEHYDE Sedative, hypnotic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 27 h F – pb – ur 1–8%* | V – CL – Mwt 176.2 PSA 36.9 Å ² $\log P$ 1.36 | METALDEHYDE *dog Molluscicide, crosses bbb |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.6 h* F 80%* pb – ur 0%* | V 9.5* CL 15* Mwt 418.5 PSA 83.5 Å ² $\log P$ 4.89 | ARTELINIC ACID *dog Antimalarial Metabolism: O-debenzylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 43% pb 95% ur – | V 1–10 CL/F 3.7 Mwt 298.4 PSA 46.2 Å ² $\log P$ 3.07 | ARTEMETHER Antimalarial Metabolism: O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.2–0.7 h F 30% (rat) pb 75% ur – | V 15 CL 1070 Mwt 384.4 PSA 101 Å ² $\log P$ 2.94 | ARTESUNATE Antimalarial |

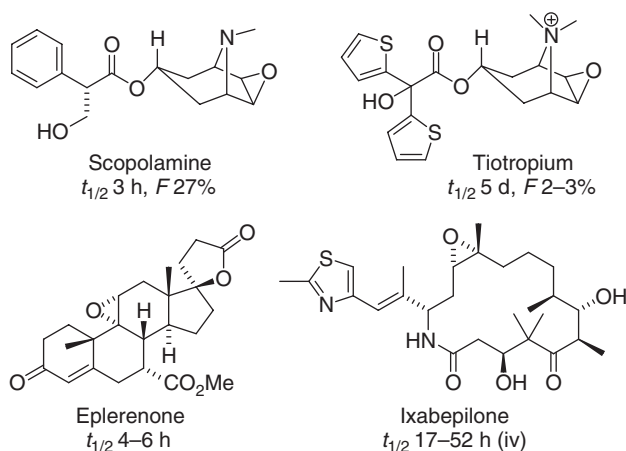
| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|------------|-------|---------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.6±0.6 h | V/F | 16±9 | ARTEMISININ Natural antimalarial |
| | F | Low | CL/F | 66±49 | |
| | pb | 77% | Mwt | 282.3 | |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 54.0 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.27 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3.2 h (iv) | V | 2.5 | BILOBALIDE Neuroprotectant |
| | F | – | CL | 10 | |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 326.3 | |
| | ur | 30% | PSA | 119 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 4.46 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 20–24 h | V | 0.55–0.83 | TOPIRAMATE Anticonvulsant, antimigraine Metabolism: acetal hydrolysis, hydroxylation of CH ₃ |
| | F | 80–95% | CL | – | |
| | pb | 10–20% | Mwt | 339.4 | |
| | ur | 35–80% | PSA | 124 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.16 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

17

Epoxides

Epoxides are strong alkylating reagents, but when stabilized by stereochemical or electronic effects, their toxicity may be sufficiently low to be suitable as nonalkylating drugs. Tropane-derived epoxides, for instance, are metabolically stable and only react with nucleophiles under forcing conditions. Stable epoxides can, therefore, be considered as PK-modifying group (e.g., to enhance solubility and metabolic stability) or as a possibility to get around others patents. Examples of nonalkylating epoxides are shown in Scheme 17.1.

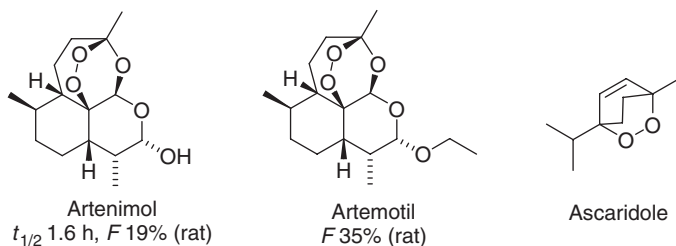


Scheme 17.1 Epoxide-containing drugs.

18

Peroxides

Despite being strong oxidants and thermally unstable, organic peroxides are occasionally used as drugs. These include the artemisinin-derived antimalarials (Table 16.1) and the anthelmintic ascaridole (Scheme 18.1). One of the metabolic transformations of these compounds includes reductive O–O bond cleavage.

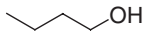
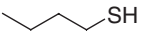




Scheme 18.1 Peroxide-containing drugs.

19

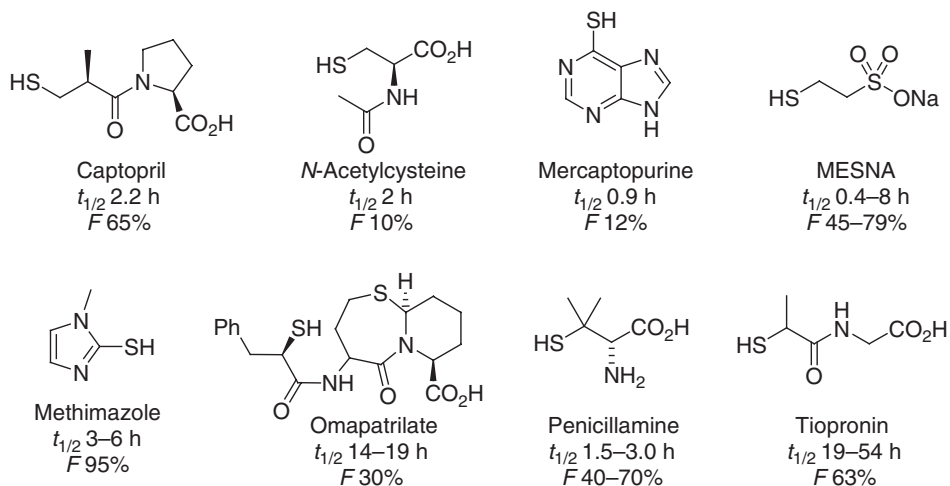
Thiols

Because sulfur is less electronegative than oxygen, the S–H bond is weaker and less strongly polarized than the O–H bond. Owing to the weaker hydrogen bonding ability, thiols have lower boiling point and are more lipophilic but more acidic than the corresponding alcohols (Scheme 19.1).

| |  |  |  |  |
|---|---|---|---|--|
| bp | 117 °C | 98 °C | 82 °C | 64 °C |
| mp | –90 °C | –116 °C | 26 °C | 1 °C |
| p <i>K</i> _a (in H ₂ O) | 16 | 10.7 | 18 | 11.1 |
| log <i>P</i> | 0.84 | 2.46 | 0.58 | 2.21 |

Scheme 19.1 Physicochemical properties of alcohols and thiols.

Free sulfhydryl groups are air sensitive and highly nucleophilic and will only be used as structural element of a drug if indispensable. Thiol-containing drugs include enzyme inhibitors such as captopril or omapatrilate (binding of SH to Zn²⁺ of angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE)), mucolytics such as *N*-acetylcysteine (as a reducing agent for disulfide bonds in proteins; also as an antidote for glutathione-depleting poisons), antidotes for heavy metal poisoning such as dimercaprol, and organ-protecting adjuvants for chemotherapy such as MESNA (Scheme 19.2). Some gold complexes, used for the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis, contain thiol-based ligands.











Scheme 19.2 Thiols as drugs.

Typical metabolic transformations of thiols include oxidative disulfide formation, desulfuration, and S-methylation.

20

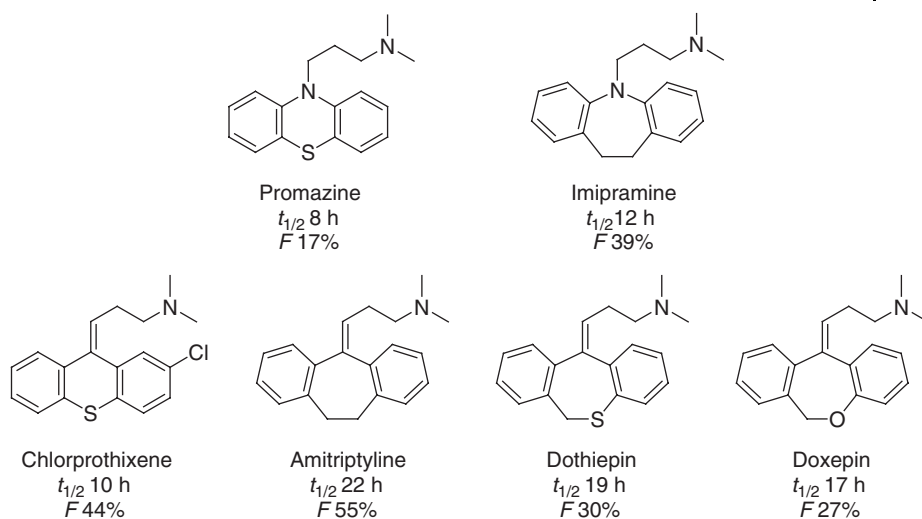
Thioethers

The thioether group is a structural element of many drugs and does usually not lead to any toxic metabolites. Thioethers have higher boiling points and higher melting points but are less water soluble than the corresponding ethers (Scheme 20.1). Thus, while THF and water are miscible, tetrahydrothiophene and water form two phases.

| | | | | | | | | |
|--------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| bp | -25 °C | 37 °C | 49 °C | 81 °C | 119 °C | 67 °C | 88 °C | 121 °C |
| mp | -139 °C | -98 °C | -94 °C | 7 °C | -12 °C | -108 °C | -45 °C | -96 °C |
| log <i>P</i> | 0.02 | 0.98 | 2.64 | 3.16 | 3.69 | 0.47 | 1.00 | 1.61 |

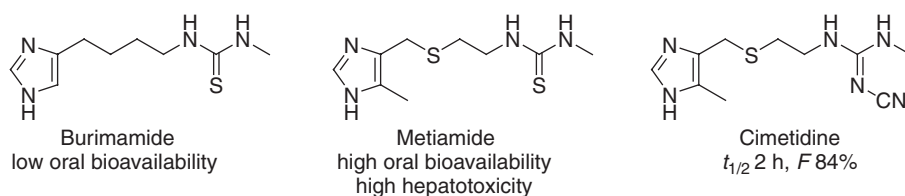
Scheme 20.1 Comparison of alkanes, ethers, and thioethers.

If a thioether-containing lead shows poor oral bioavailability or short half-life because of S-oxidation, the thioether may be replaced by the similarly sized, bioisosteric ethylene group (CH_2CH_2) or oxymethylene group (OCH_2). Such modification was realized in phenothiazine-based antipsychotics, which often are poorly orally available. The corresponding dibenzazepines show, however, similar pharmacokinetics (PK) as the phenothiazines, probably because metabolic transformations other than S-oxidation proceed faster (N-dealkylation, N-oxidation, or aromatic hydroxylation). The compounds shown in Scheme 20.2, for instance, have similar plasma half-lives and oral bioavailabilities, no matter if they contain thioethers or not.



Scheme 20.2 The effect of thioethers on the PK-properties of drugs.

Sulfur is more electronegative than carbon and may be introduced into a lead to lower its basicity. A famous example of this strategy is cimetidine, a histamine H_2 antagonist for gastric acid suppression [1]. The H_2 antagonist burimamide was potent but showed little oral bioavailability (Scheme 20.3). Replacement of a methylene group by sulfur reduced the basicity of the imidazole fragment, and with an additional methyl group, a more lipophilic, orally available drug (metiamide) was obtained. Unfortunately, the thiocarbonyl group caused hepatotoxicity, which was finally overcome by replacement of the thiourea by a cyanoguanidine.



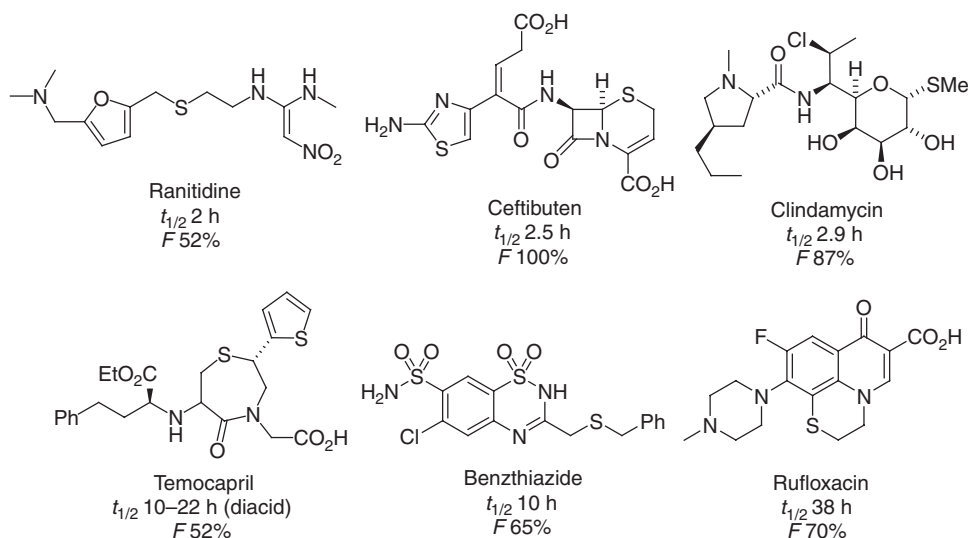
Scheme 20.3 Cimetidine and its leads.

20.1 Metabolism

Typical metabolic transformations of thioethers include dealkylation (same mechanism as dealkylation of ethers or amines) and oxidation to sulfoxides and sulfones. The oxidation to sulfoxides is reversible, and sulfoxides, for example, sulindac or DMSO, can undergo metabolic reduction to thioethers.

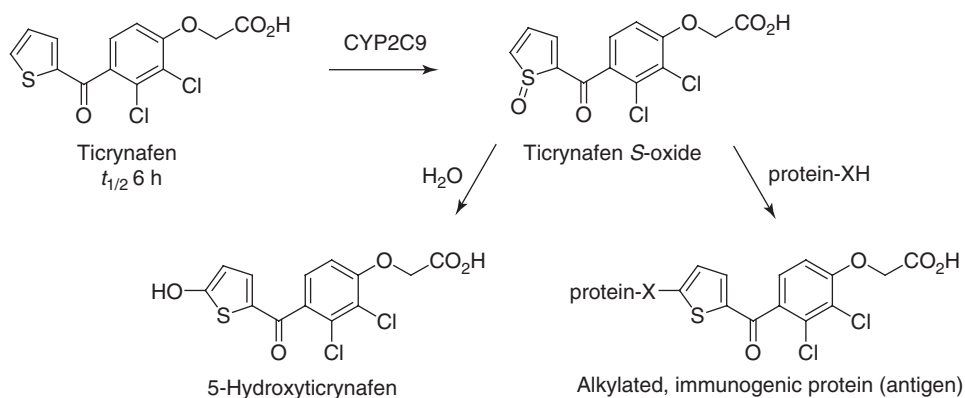
The most important metabolic pathway of sulfoxides is, however, their oxidation to sulfones.

The rapid oxidation of thioethers in the liver can lead to low oral bioavailability. Specially sensitive are highly lipophilic thioethers (e.g., phenothiazines) and sterically unshielded thioethers (e.g., arene-bound SCH₃). Occasionally, thioethers have been introduced into drugs to shorten their half-life, for instance, in the barbiturate methitural. If a drug is hydrophilic, however, sulfoxide formation may be acceptably slow. Some examples of thioethers with relatively long half-lives and good oral availabilities are shown in Scheme 20.4.



Scheme 20.4 Thioethers as drugs.

Metabolic S-oxidation can on occasions generate electrophilic intermediates that can cause toxicity or an immune response by protein alkylation. The withdrawn diuretic ticrynafen (tienilic acid), for instance, is converted in the liver into a highly reactive thiophene S-oxide, which induces an autoimmune response toward a liver protein (Scheme 20.5). Although any 2-unsubstituted thiophene may undergo these reactions, the required dose of drug is also a critical parameter for adverse drug reactions, and numerous safe, thiophene-containing drugs have been developed.



Scheme 20.5 Metabolism of ticrynafen.

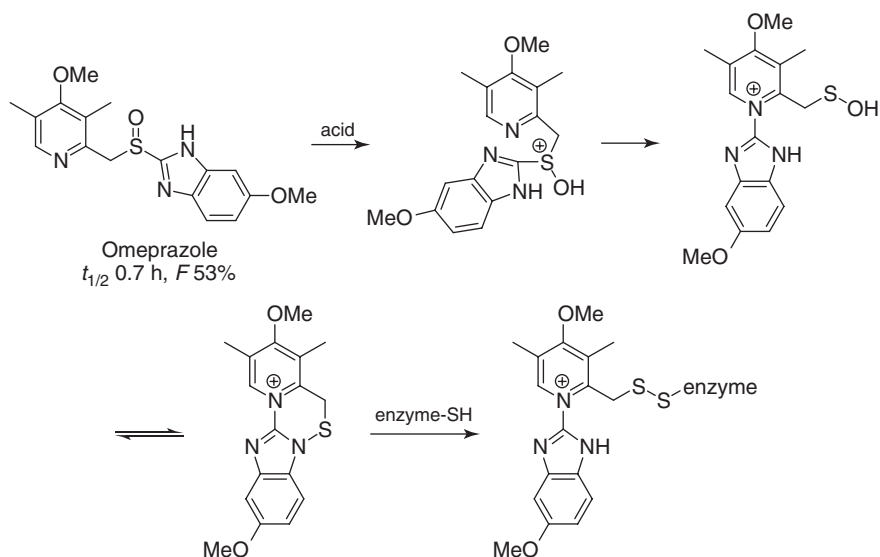
Reference

1. Durant, G.J., Emmett, J.C., Ganellin, C.R., Miles, P.D., Parsons, M.E., Prain, H.D., and White, G.R. (1977) Cyanoguanidine–thiourea equivalence in the development of the histamine H_2 -receptor antagonist, cimetidine. *J. Med. Chem.*, **20**, 901–906.

21

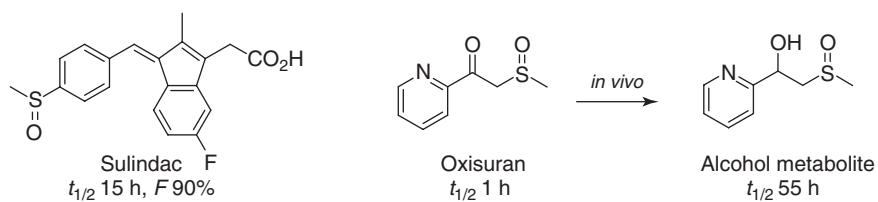
Sulfoxides

Despite its chemical reactivity, numerous drugs contain a sulfoxide group. In the case of proton pump inhibitors, sulfoxide reactivity is essential to their mechanism of action (Scheme 21.1). Omeprazole, for instance, has a short half-life under acidic conditions (2 min at pH 1–3) and covalently binds to H^+, K^+ -ATPase to form a nonfunctional complex with a half-life of about 24 h. The enzyme is reactivated by glutathione-mediated reductive cleavage of the S–S bond.



Scheme 21.1 Mechanism of action of omeprazole.

Other sulfoxides with higher metabolic stability than the proton pump inhibitors include the nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drug (NSAID) sulindac and the alcohol metabolite of the immunosuppressant oxisuran (Scheme 21.2).



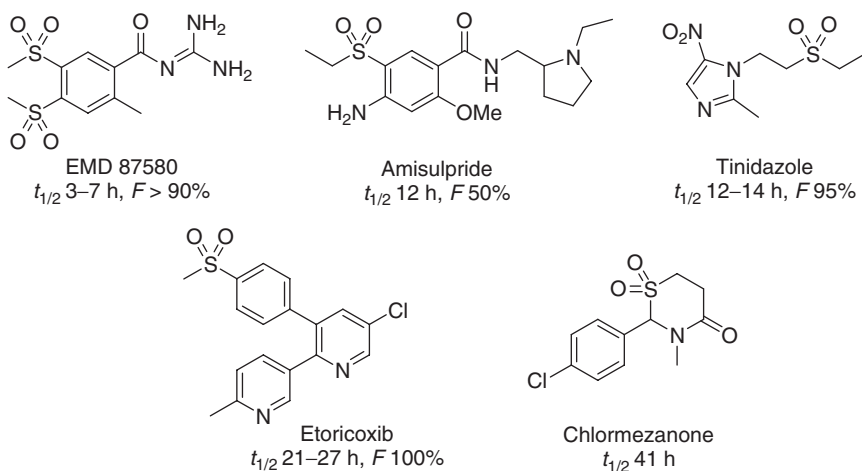
Scheme 21.2 Sulfoxides as drugs.

Besides undergoing Pummerer-type reactions as electrophiles, sulfoxides are mainly oxidized *in vivo* to sulfones or reduced to thioethers.

22

Sulfones

Sulfones are chemically and metabolically stable, highly polar functional groups, and have often been used for lead optimization. This group can be used to enhance solubility and reduce the rate of metabolic transformations or as bioisostere of a sulfonamide or an amide. Examples of sulfone-containing drugs are shown in Scheme 22.1.



Scheme 22.1 Sulfones as drugs.

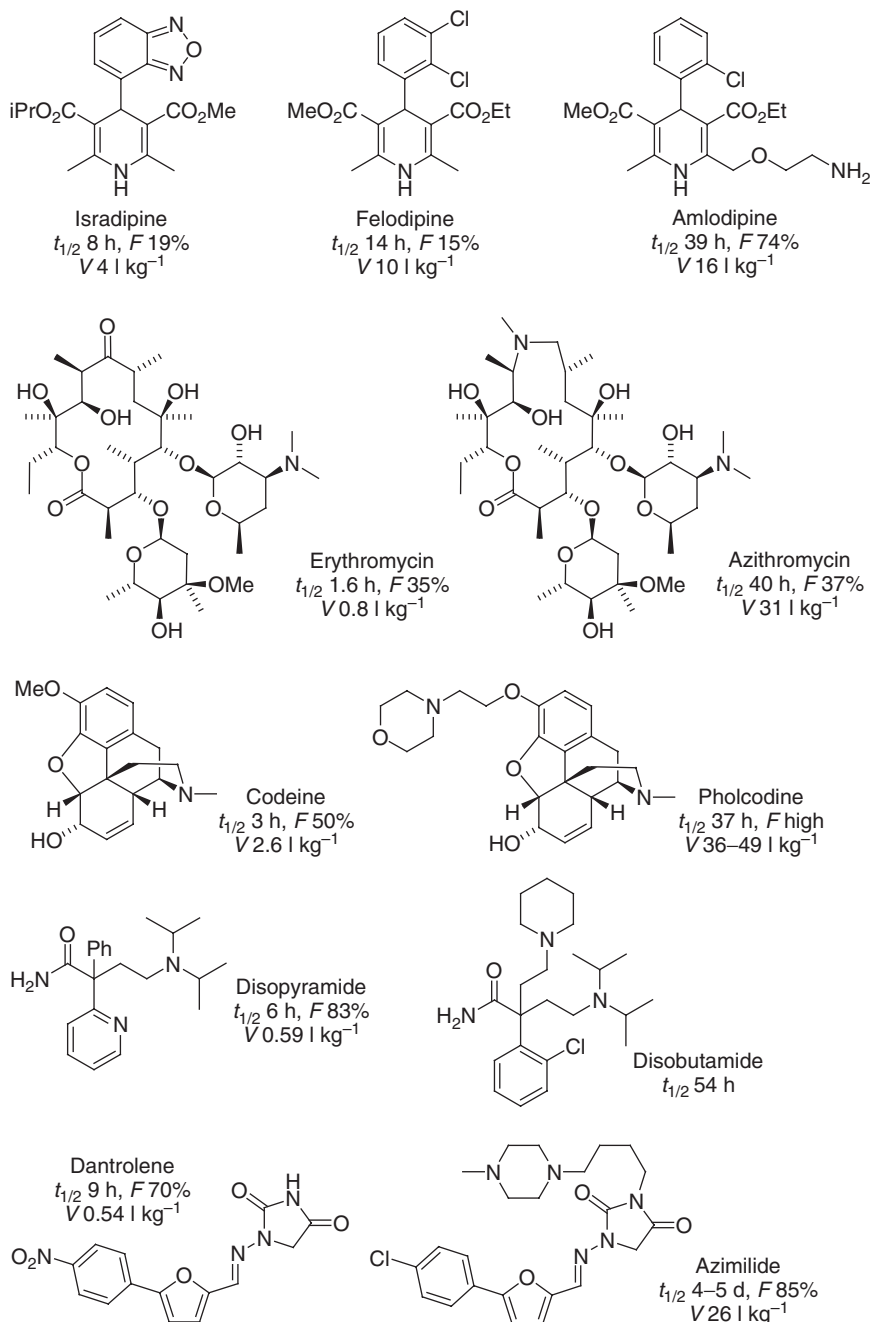
23

Aliphatic Amines

Aliphatic amines are basic compounds (pK_a 8–10) and will be protonated to a large extent in most organs. As salts, aliphatic amines dissolve more readily in water than free (unprotonated) amines, and drugs containing an amine functionality are, therefore, often formulated as ammonium salts. Further advantages of salts include a higher melting point, lower vapor pressure (no smell), higher stability toward oxidants, light, or carbon dioxide, and an overall better processability.

Natural compounds with an amine functionality, present in our food or body, include amino acids, hormones (serotonin, dopamine), or decarboxylated amino acids such as histamine, tyramine, or tryptamine. A huge number of drugs contain the amine substructure; these include enzyme inhibitors and agonists or antagonists of natural neurotransmitters, in which the amino group is a key pharmacophore (e.g. Table 23.1).

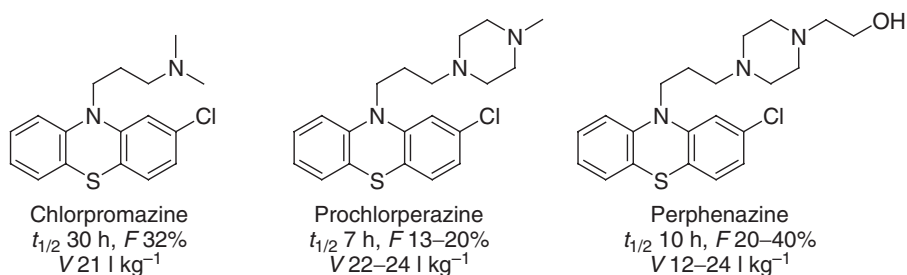
Amino groups may, however, also be introduced into drugs to modify their physicochemical and pharmacokinetic properties. The solubility of highly insoluble, neutral organic compounds may, for instance, be enhanced by linking them to a basic functional group (see, e.g., camptothecin and topotecan, Chapter 60). Moreover, because biological membranes consist of negatively charged phospholipids, basic drugs tend to be distributed more extensively in tissue than neutral or acidic drugs of similar $\log P$ and molecular weight. This leads to higher volumes of distribution and, all other factors being constant, to a longer half-life of basic drugs if compared to a similar neutral or acidic drug. Therefore, the half-life of a drug may be enhanced with basic functional groups. Successful examples of this strategy are given in Scheme 23.1.



Scheme 23.1 Effect of amines on PK.

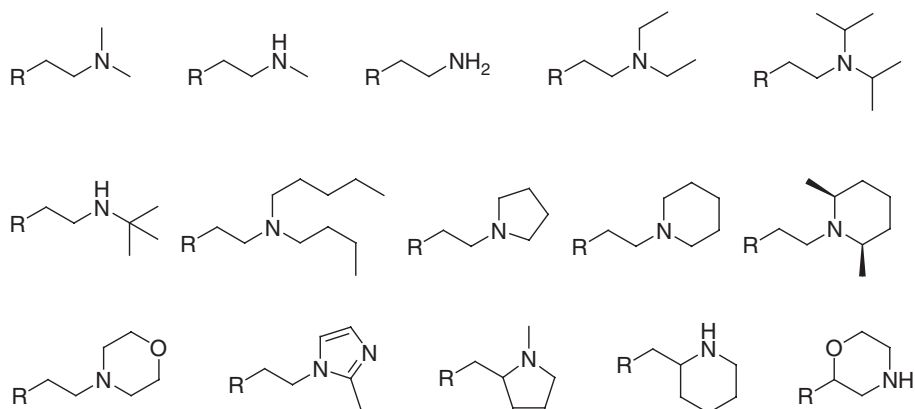
Not always does the half-life of a drug increase when introducing an amine functionality. The volume of distribution also depends on the affinity of a drug to plasma proteins. If a modified drug binds stronger to plasma proteins, its volume of distribution and plasma half-life may be lowered if compared to a less protein-bound drug.

Drugs containing two amino groups close to each other (1,2-diaminoethanes, piperazines) are not completely diprotonated in human plasma. The formation of a dication requires a low pH (ethylenediamine: pK_a 10.7, 7.6; piperazine: pK_a 9.8, 5.6), and drugs with these substructures are mainly monoprotonated in plasma and most tissues. Thus, replacement of the dimethylamino group in chlorpromazine by a substituted piperazine does not significantly enhance the volume of distribution (Scheme 23.2).



Scheme 23.2 Comparison of monoamines with piperazines.

As illustrated by the examples above, dimethylamino groups can often be replaced by other amine-containing groups, without significant alteration of biological properties. A large number of alternatives for a dimethylamino group have been used with success to fine-tune potency, selectivity, and PK properties. Some of the many possibilities are shown in Scheme 23.3.



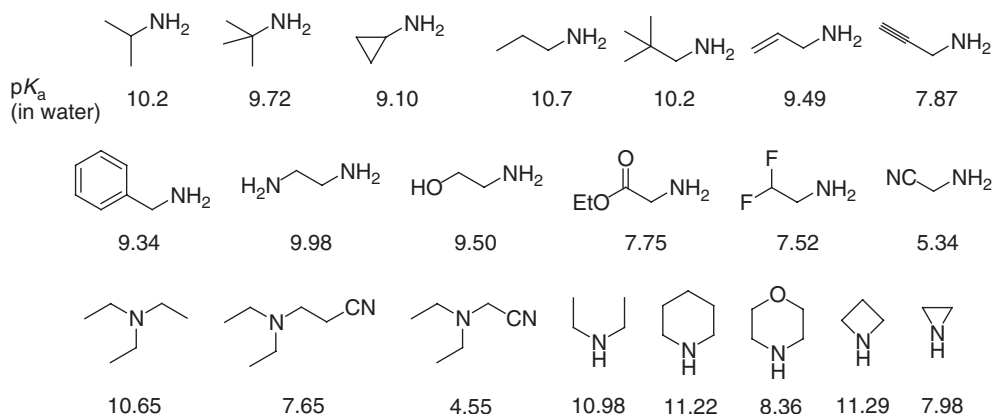
Scheme 23.3 Typical basic substituents used in drugs.

23.1

Basicity

Because only uncharged xenobiotics can cross cell membranes without the aid of a carrier mechanism, the basicity of amines can have an impact on their PK properties. Unfortunately, in many leads, the amino group is a critical pharmacophore and cannot be replaced by an uncharged group without losing affinity to the target protein. It may be possible, however, to slightly lower the basicity of an amine and attain a significant improvement of absorption from the gastrointestinal (GI) tract and blood–brain barrier (bbb) penetration.

The structure of an alkyl substituent may modify the basicity of an amine. Alternatively, a heteroatom or an electron-withdrawing substituent will often decrease the pK_a of an amine. Illustrative examples are given in Scheme 23.4.



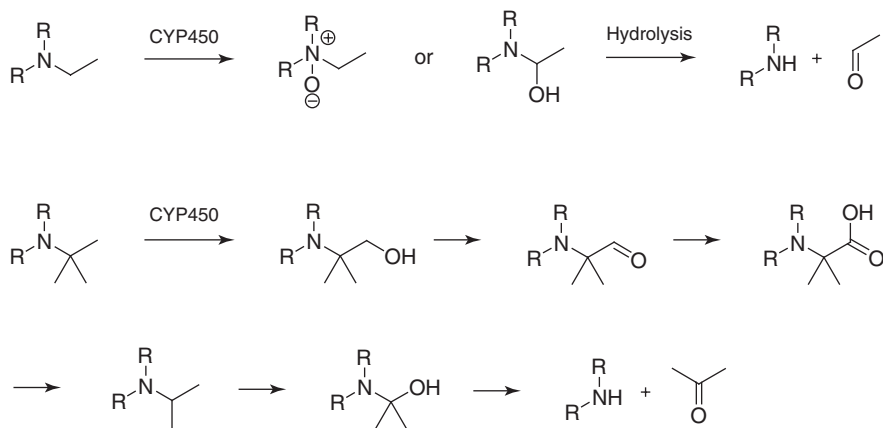
Scheme 23.4 Basicity of amines.

Amines with cyano, sulfonyl, or nitro groups in α - or β -position are not stable and can undergo hydrolysis or β -elimination. The rate of such reactions may, however, be sufficiently low to allow their use in lead optimization.

23.2

Metabolism

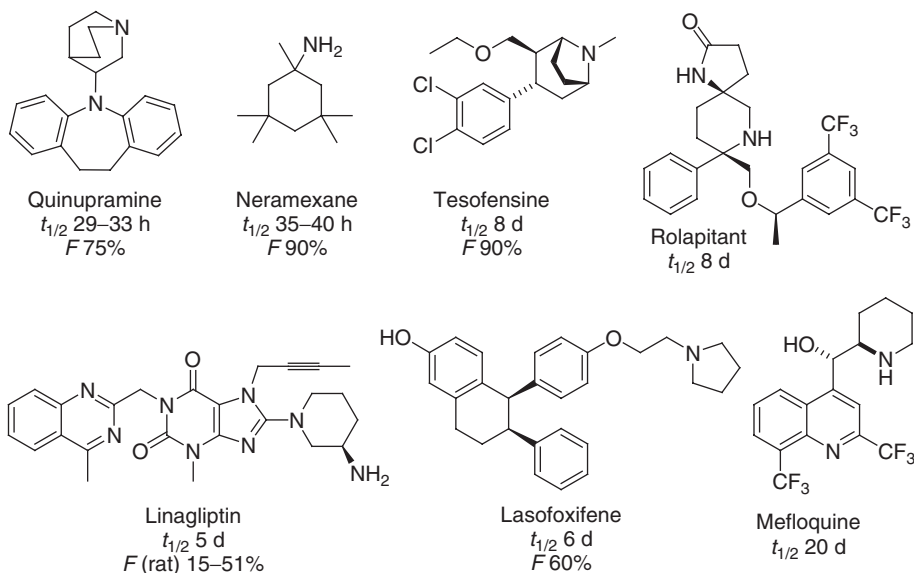
Amines are readily oxidized, and typical hepatic transformations include N-dealkylation and N-oxidation. Amines with *tert*-alkyl substituents can be dealkylated by decarboxylation of an intermediate amino acid [1] (Scheme 23.5).



Scheme 23.5 Metabolic N-dealkylation of amines.

The *rate* of metabolic degradation, which ultimately determines the extent of first-pass effect and thus the oral bioavailability and half-life, strongly depends on the overall structure of the drug and cannot be readily predicted. Important factors include the lipophilicity and polar surface area (PSA) of the whole molecule and the basicity of the amino group and its steric accessibility. It is often observed that primary and secondary amines are dealkylated more slowly than similar tertiary amines.

A selection of amines with long plasma half-lives is given in Scheme 23.6.

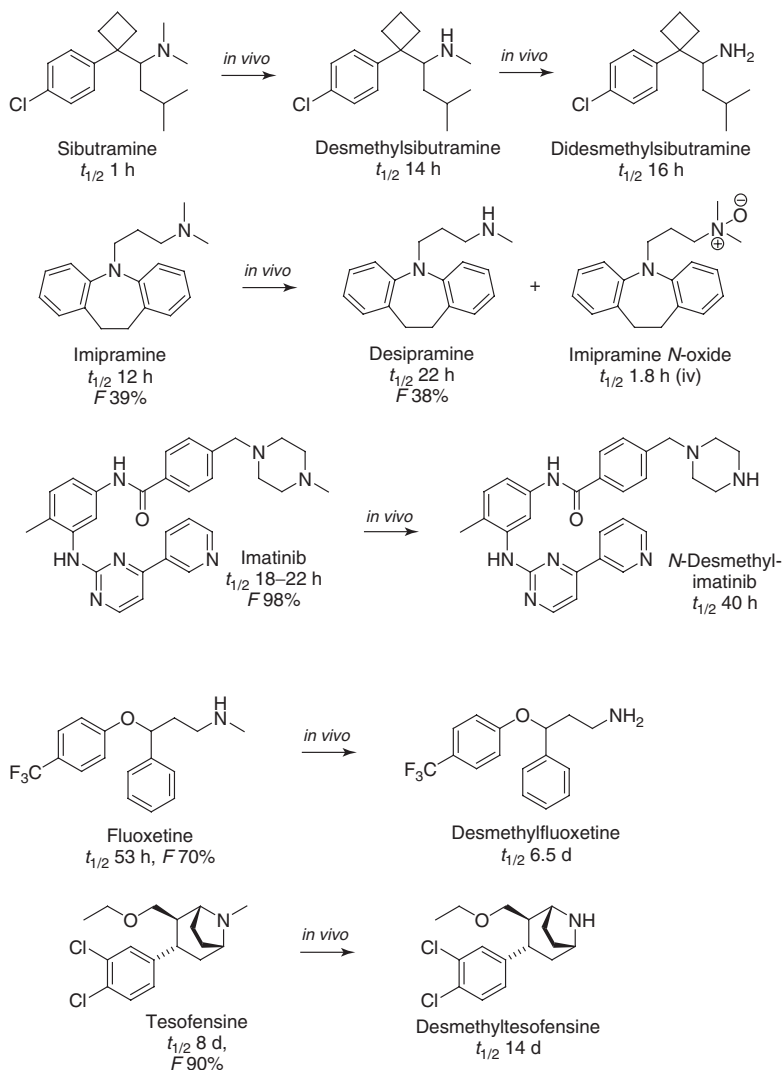


Scheme 23.6 Long-lived amine-containing drugs.

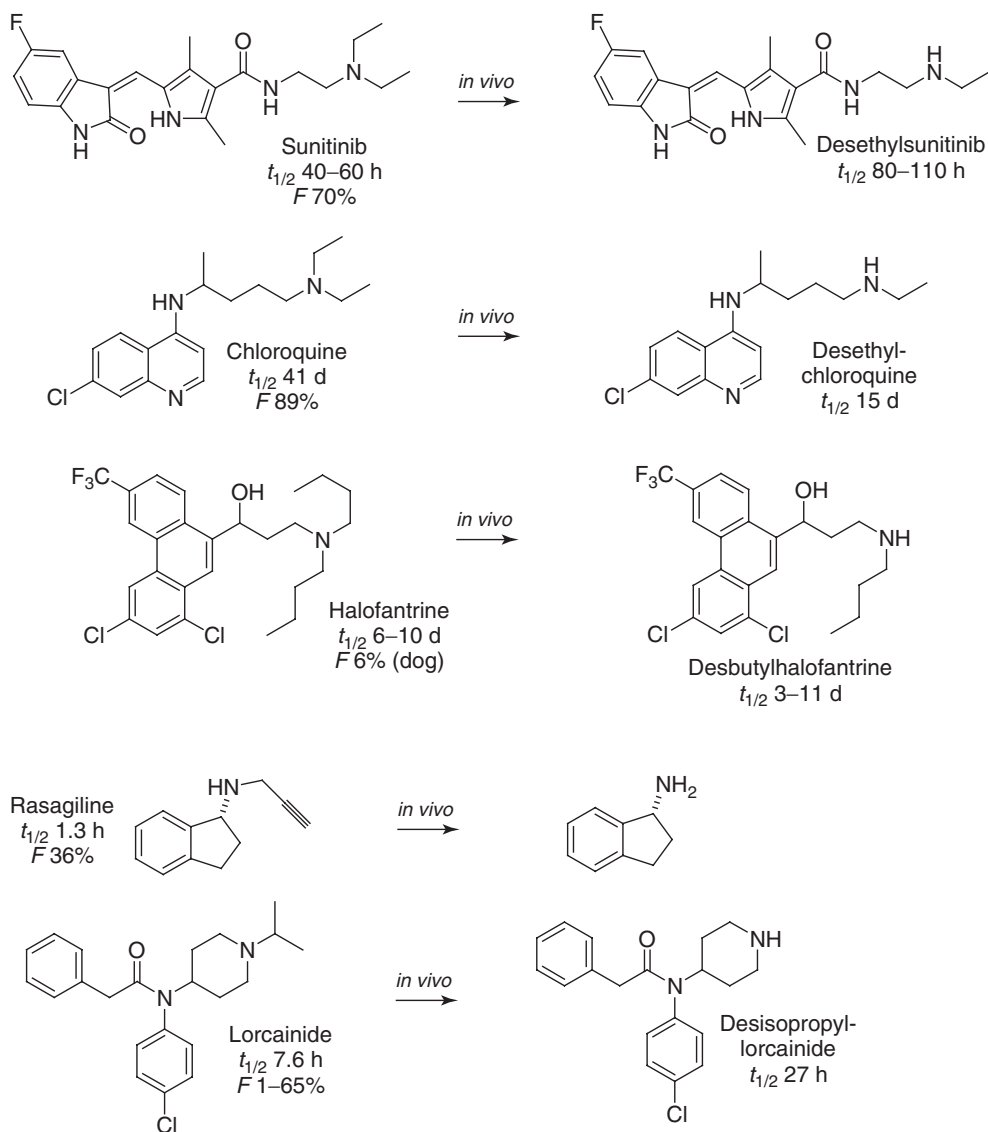
23.3

Rates of N-Dealkylation

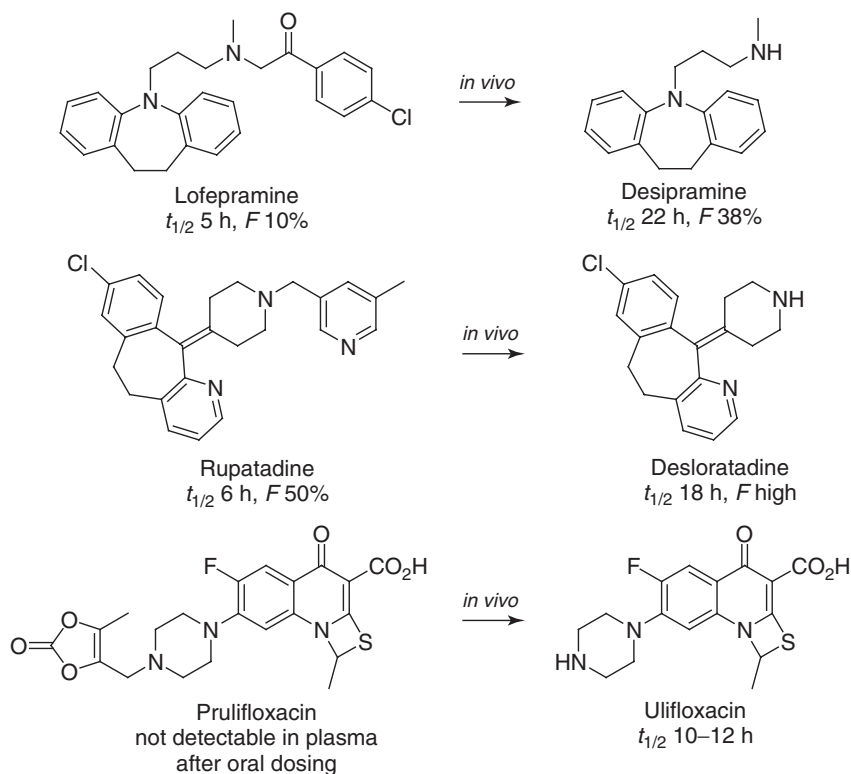
The dimethylamino and methylamino groups are present in numerous drugs. Their half-life varies strongly, but in many instances, the half-life increases on demethylation. Thus, secondary methylamines are metabolically more stable than the corresponding tertiary dimethylamines. In addition to the examples shown in Scheme 23.7, this effect has been observed for zimeldine, ruboxistaurine, sertraline, tilidine, and amiodarone (N-deethylation).



Scheme 23.7 Metabolic N-dealkylation of amines.

**Scheme 23.7** (Continued).

Prodrugs are launched occasionally in which the parent drug is formed by metabolic N-dealkylation of an amine. Three such examples are shown in Scheme 23.8. The aim with such prodrugs is to keep the compound inactive during its absorption from the GI tract to avoid unwanted side effects or to enhance its lipophilicity to improve oral bioavailability.



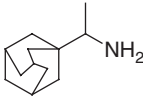
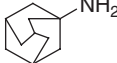
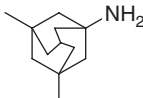
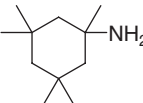
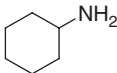
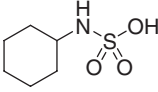
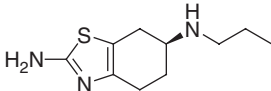
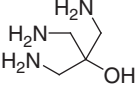
Scheme 23.8 Metabolic N-dealkylation of amine prodrugs.

Highly insoluble primary or secondary amines may be acylated with glycine or short peptides (see also Chapter 33). This can result in a prodrug of higher solubility, which will usually be rapidly deacylated in human plasma.

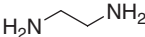
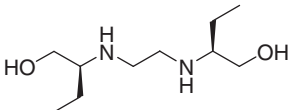
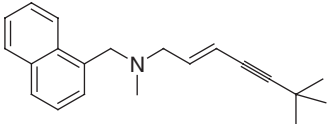
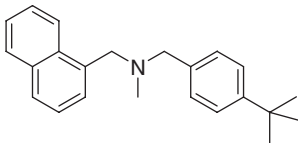
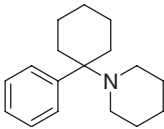
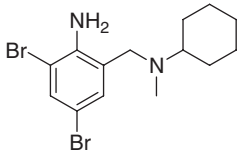
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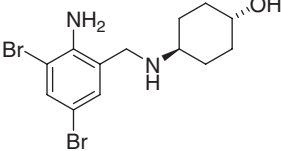
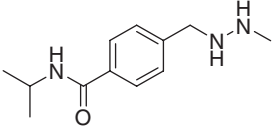
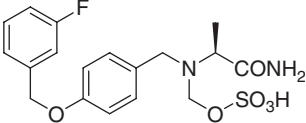
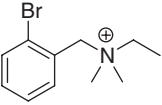
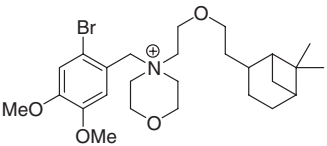
1. Kamm, J.J. and Szuna, A. (1973) Studies on an unusual N-dealkylation reaction. II. Characteristics of the enzyme system and a proposed pathway for the reaction. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.*, **184**, 729–738.

Table 23.1 Aliphatic amines. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 30±14 h F 99% (dog) pb 40% ur 9±4% | V/F 25±14 CL/F 10±6 Mwt 179.3 PSA 26.0 Å ² $\log P$ 3.31 | RIMANTADINE Antiviral Metabolism: hydroxylation of adamantane |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16±3.4 h F 70±20% pb 67% ur 70±20% | V 6.6±1.5 CL 4.8±0.8 Mwt 151.3 PSA 26 Å ² $\log P$ 2.44 | AMANTADINE Antiviral, antiparkinsonian No metabolism |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 60–100 h F 100% pb 45% ur 48% | V 10 CL – Mwt 179.3 PSA 26.0 Å ² $\log P$ 3.00 | MEMANTINE Muscle relaxant, treatment of Alzheimer's disease Metabolites: 4- and 6-hydroxy, dimethylnitrosoadamantane |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 35–40 h F 90% pb – ur 30–40% | V 11 CL – Mwt 169.3 PSA 26.0 Å ² $\log P$ 4.00 | NERAMEXANE NMDA antagonist Metabolism: oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F – pb – ur – | V 2–3 CL – Mwt 99.2 PSA 26.0 Å ² $\log P$ 1.50 | CYCLOHEXYLAMINE Metabolite of cyclamate (see below) Metabolites: cyclohexanol, <i>trans</i> -1,2-dihydroxycyclohexane |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8 h* F <37% pb – ur 30–40% | V – CL – Mwt 179.2 PSA 74.8 Å ² $\log P$ 1.03 | CYCLAMATE *rat, dog Artificial sweetener Metabolite: cyclohexylamine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–14 h F 90% pb – ur 90% | V 7.0–7.3 CL 0.11 Mwt 211.3 PSA 79.2 Å ² $\log P$ 1.42 | PRAMIPEXOLE Antiparkinsonian |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.6 h F – pb – ur 82% | V – CL – Mwt 121.1 PSA 86.7 Å ² $\log P$ –2.52 | THAM For treatment of metabolic acidosis |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t^{1/2}$ 0.6 h F 34% pb – ur 3% | V 0.13 CL – Mwt 60.1 PSA 52.0 Å ² log P –2.06 | ETHYLENEDIAMINE Hydrochloride as urinary acidifier |
|  | $t^{1/2}$ 3.1±0.4 h F 77±8% pb <5% ur 79±3% | V 1.6±0.2 CL 8.6±0.8 Mwt 204.3 PSA 64.5 Å ² log P –0.29 | ETHAMBUTOL Antibacterial Metabolism: oxidation of hydroxymethylene to carboxyl |
|  | $t^{1/2}$ 17–36 h F 40% pb >99% ur Negligible | V >30 CL – Mwt 291.4 PSA 3.24 Å ² log P 5.58 | TERBINAFINE Topical antifungal Metabolism: N-demethylation, hydroxylation of <i>tert</i> -butyl, oxidation of <i>tert</i> -butyl to carboxyisopropyl, N-de(naphthyl)methylation to naphthaldehyde and naphthoic acid |
|  | $t^{1/2}$ 35–150 h* F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 317.5 PSA 3.24 Å ² log P 6.00 | BUTENAFINE *after topical administration Topical antifungal Metabolism: hydroxylation of <i>tert</i> -butyl |
|  | $t^{1/2}$ 7–51 h F 50–90% pb 60–70% ur 9–10% | V 6.2 CL 5.4 Mwt 243.4 PSA 3.24 Å ² log P 4.25 | PHENCYCLIDINE Anesthetic, hallucinogenic Metabolism: piperidine 4-hydroxylation, cyclohexane hydroxylation, piperidine ring opening by N-dealkylation |
|  | $t^{1/2}$ 6–12 h F 25% pb 99% ur 0.1% | V 5.5–7.0 CL – Mwt 376.1 PSA 29.3 Å ² log P 4.80 | BROMHEXINE Expectorant, mucolytic Metabolite: ambroxol (see below) |

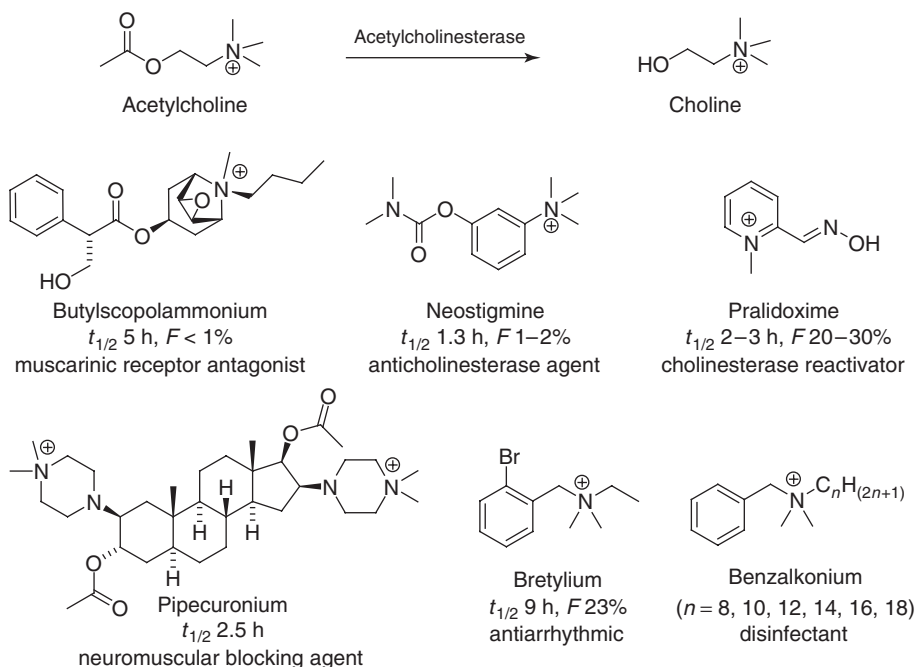
| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|--------------|---------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 7–12 h | V | 1.5 | AMBROXOL |
| | F | 70–80% | CL | 8.7 | Expectorant, active <i>N</i> -desmethyl metabolite of bromhexine |
| | pb | 90% | Mwt | 378.1 | Metabolite: dibromoanthranilic acid |
| | ur | 5–6% | PSA | 58.3 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 4.57 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 7–10 min* | V | – | PROCARBAZINE |
| | F | 100% | CL | – | *iv |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 221.3 | Antineoplastic; crosses bbb; |
| | ur | <5% | PSA | 53.2 Å ² | highly carcinogenic |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 0.06 | Metabolite: terephthalic <i>N</i> -isopropyl monoamide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 21–24 h | V | 2.3 | SAFINAMIDE |
| | F | 80–92% | CL | – | MAO inhibitor |
| | pb | 92% | Mwt | 302.3 | Metabolism: <i>N</i> -dealkylation, |
| | ur | 7–10% | PSA | 64.3 Å ² | hydrolysis of amide, |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 2.20 | then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 8.9±1.8 h | V | 5.9±0.8 | BRETYLIUM |
| | F | 23±9% | CL | 10±2 | Antiadrenergic, antiarrhythmic |
| | pb | 0–8% | Mwt | 243.2 | |
| | ur | 77±15% | PSA | 0.0 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | –0.90 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.5 h | V | – | PINAVERIUM |
| | F | <0.5% | CL | – | Antispasmodic |
| | pb | 95–98% | Mwt | 511.5 | Metabolism: <i>O</i> -demethylation, |
| | ur | – | PSA | 36.9 Å ² | hydroxylation at pinanyl, |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 1.25 | <i>N</i> -debenzylation, then oxidative degradation of morpholine |

MAO, monoamine oxidase; NMDA, *N*-methyl-D-aspartic acid; $t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; *F*, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

24

Quaternary Ammonium Salts

Drugs containing quaternary ammonium groups are mainly designed to interact with the various acetylcholine receptors and with the enzyme acetylcholinesterase. These include muscarinic receptor agonists and antagonists (e.g., quaternized belladonna alkaloids as bronchodilators and antispasmodics), nicotinic receptor agonists and antagonists (neuromuscular blocking agents, ganglionic blocking agents), ganglionic stimulants, and antiacetylcholinesterase agents (cholinergics) [1]. In all these drugs, the quaternary ammonium group is the key pharmacophore. Further, quaternary ammonium salts include the antiarrhythmic bretylium, the opiate antagonist methylnaltrexone, and topical disinfectants, such as benzalkonium (Scheme 24.1).



Scheme 24.1 Quaternary ammonium salts as drugs.

A common feature of most quaternary ammonium salts is their low oral bioavailability. Because the small intestine behaves essentially as a large, lipophilic membrane, charged molecules cannot be readily absorbed. For this reason, an animal killed by parenteral administration of tubocurarine (a quaternary ammonium salt) can be safely eaten because of the low oral bioavailability of the poison.

Small, charged molecules may nevertheless be absorbed either by means of an active transport mechanism or via small hydrophilic pores. The latter have diameters of 3–8 Å and will enable the passage of either extended, long molecules of up to 400 g mol⁻¹ or more spherical molecules of up to 200 g mol⁻¹.

The quaternization of an amino-group-containing drug will usually yield a compound with lower ability to cross the blood–brain barrier (bbb) and lower oral bioavailability. The *in vitro* affinity to the target protein may, however, be similar to that of the tertiary amine. Because of the low oral bioavailability of salts, quaternization is not a common strategy to block central effects of a drug. Examples include the antispasmodic emepronium (Table 46.1) and methylnaltrexone (Table 52.1), a parenteral opiate antagonist designed to prevent some of the side effects of opioids, such as constipation.

The metabolic stability of quaternary ammonium salts depends on the type of substituents, but usually, no metabolic degradation of this functional group is seen *in vivo*. For instance, only 0.06% of a dose of methylnaltrexone is demethylated *in vivo* to naltrexone.

Molecules containing two basic sites (amines or ammonium salts) separated by around 14 Å (~8–12 bonds) may act as neuromuscular blocking agents. Such compounds (e.g., tubocurarine, pipecuronium, atracurium, decamethonium, etc.) interrupt nervous signal transmission and are used as adjuvant muscle relaxants during surgery. High doses of such compounds will, however, cause death by asphyxiation. Before testing diamines in animals, these compounds should, therefore, also be checked for neuromuscular blocking activity.

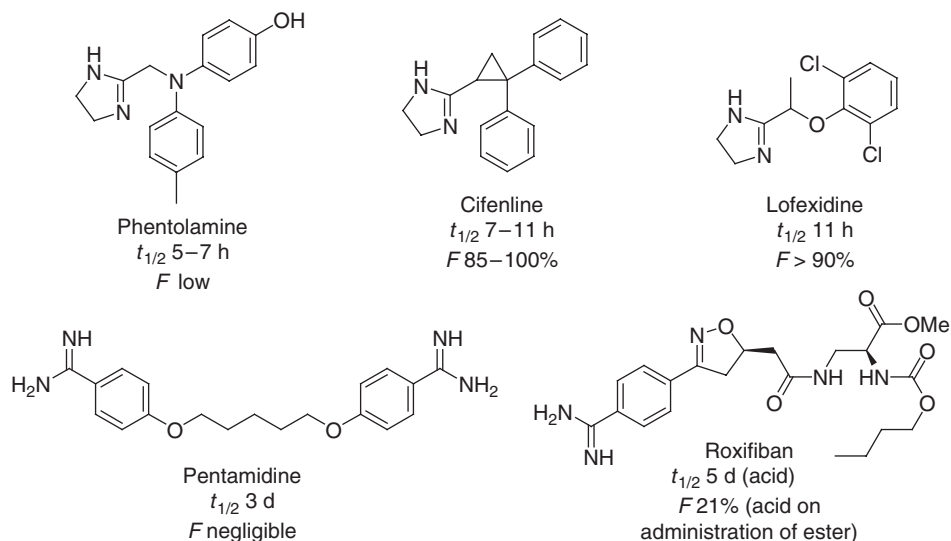
Reference

1. (a) Sneader, W. (1996) Curare. *Drug News Perspect.*, **9**, 627–630; (b) Sneader, W. (1997) Synthetic muscle relaxants. *Drug News Perspect.*, **10**, 113–117.

25

Amidines

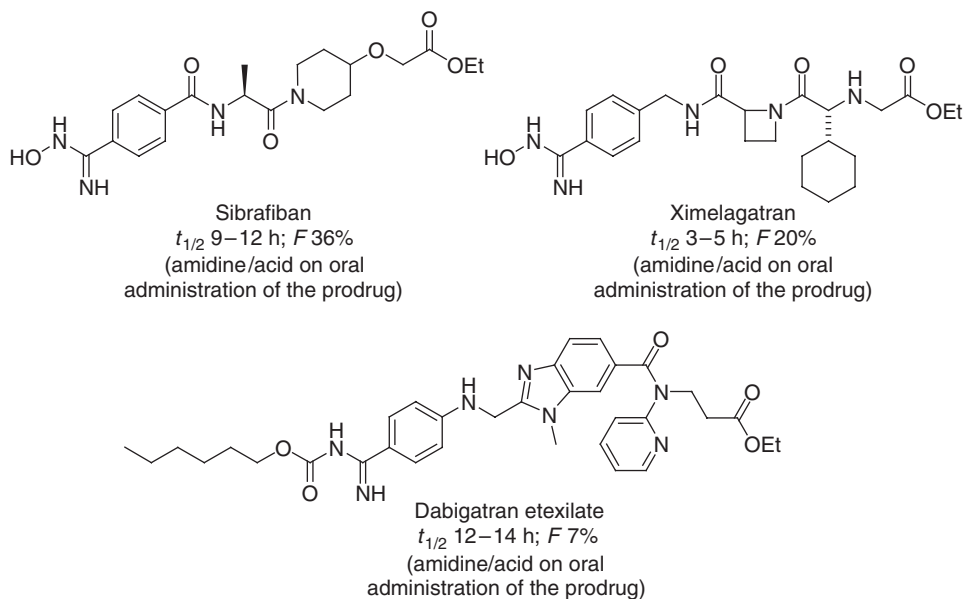
Amidines (pK_a 12) are almost as basic as guanidines and often show poor oral bioavailability and little ability to cross membranes. One exception is low-molecular-weight amidines and imidazolines, which can be highly orally available (Scheme 25.1). Nevertheless, many amidine-containing drugs have to be inhaled or dosed parenterally. These include α -adrenergic agonists and antagonists, antiprotozoals, and antithrombotics (Table 26.1). The benzamidine substructure of the latter is a mimetic of arginine of the natural substrate of the proteases involved in the blood clotting cascade. This amidine is difficult to replace by other functional groups without losing biological activity.



Scheme 25.1 Amidines as drugs.

Because of their poor oral bioavailability, various prodrugs of amidines have been developed (Scheme 25.2). These include *N*-hydroxyamidines, which undergo quick

reductive N–O bond cleavage *in vivo*, and carbamates. These amidine precursors are less basic than amidines and show higher oral bioavailability [1]. On oral administration, these prodrugs usually cannot be detected in plasma, and the half-lives given refer to the parent drug.



Scheme 25.2 Prodrugs of amidines.

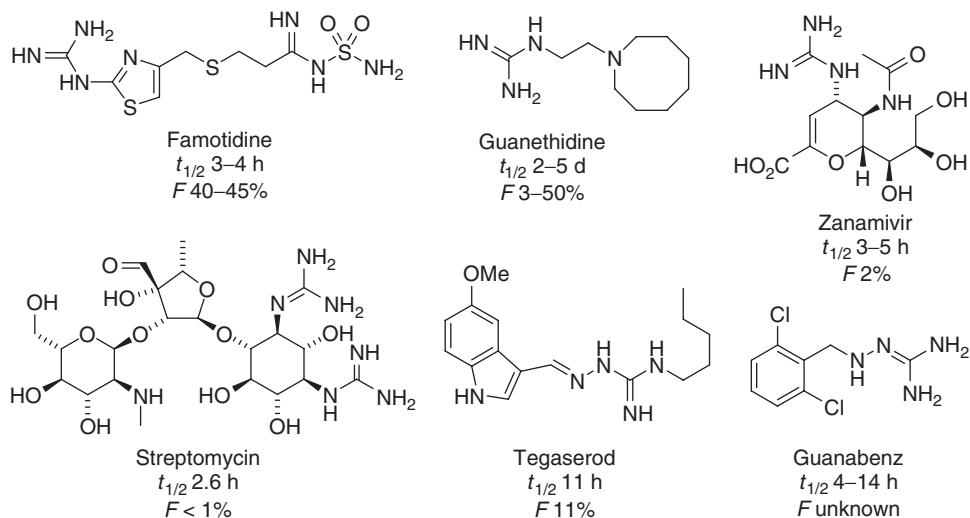
Reference

1. Reeh, C., Wundt, J., and Clement, B. (2007) *N,N'*-Dihydroxyamidines: a new prodrug principle to improve the oral bioavailability of amidines. *J. Med. Chem.*, **50**, 6730–6734.

26

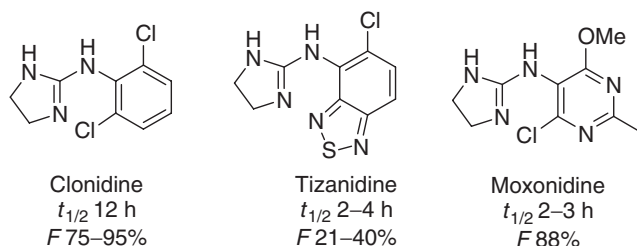
Guanidines, Acylguanidines, and Biguanides

Guanidines are strong bases (pK_a 13) and will be protonated and positively charged in most tissues. Guanidines are highly water soluble, but have poor oral bioavailabilities and cannot efficiently cross membranes or the blood–brain barrier (bbb) (Scheme 26.1). In most guanidine-containing drugs, the guanidine is the key pharmacophore and difficult to replace by other, less basic functional groups. Examples include histamine H_2 antagonists (antiulceratives, e.g., famotidine, ebrotidine), ganglionic blocking agents (antihypertensives, e.g., guanethidine), neuraminidase inhibitors (antivirals, e.g., zanamivir, peramivir), antibacterials (streptomycin), and 5-HT₄ agonist tegaserod (treatment of constipation).



Scheme 26.1 Guanidines as drugs.

Several 2-(arylamino)imidazolines have been developed, mainly as α -adrenergic agonists (Scheme 26.2, Table 26.1). These are slightly less basic and have higher oral bioavailabilities than purely aliphatic guanidines. Some of these compounds can be used as topical, intraocular pressure lowering agents for the treatment of glaucoma [1].

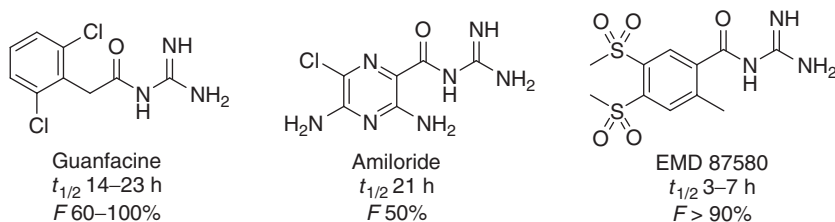


Scheme 26.2 *N*-arylguanidines as drugs.

26.1

Acylguanidines

Acylated guanidines (pK_a 8–9) are less basic than alkyl- or arylguanidines or aliphatic amines and are readily absorbed from the gastrointestinal (GI) tract. Some, for example, guanfacine (Scheme 26.3), even cross the bbb, despite their large polar surface area (PSA). Most of these compounds are sodium channel blockers and are being used as diuretics, antihypertensives, or cardioprotectants.

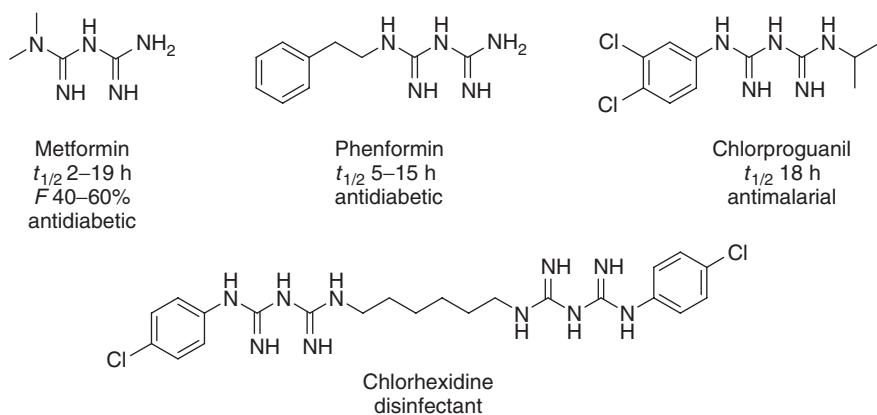


Scheme 26.3 Acylguanidines as drugs.

26.2

Biguanides

Substituted biguanides are being used as antidiabetics, antiprotozoals, and disinfectants (Scheme 26.4). The antidiabetic effect of biguanides is caused by insulin sensitization of peripheral tissue and by inhibition of hepatic gluconeogenesis. Only biguanides of low molecular weight ($<200 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) are orally bioavailable; larger molecules require either parenteral or topical administration or will, on oral administration, only be active in the GI tract.

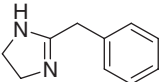
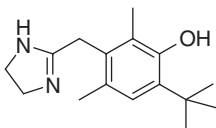
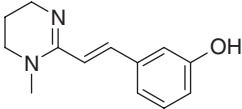
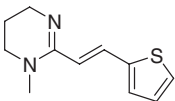


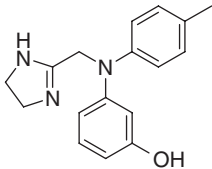
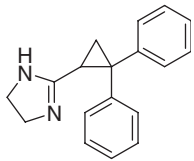
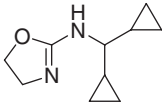
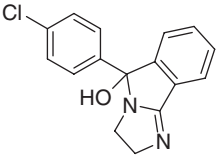
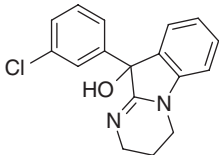
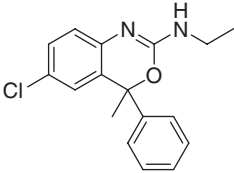
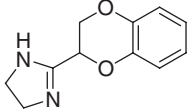
Scheme 26.4 Biguanides as drugs.

Reference

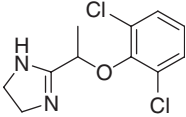
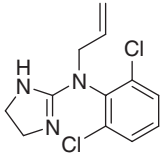
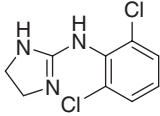
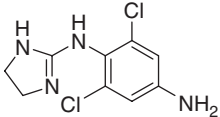
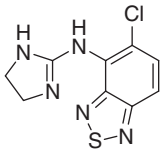
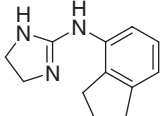
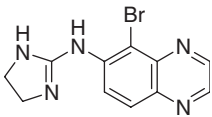
1. Sugrue, M.F. (1997) New approaches to antiglaucoma therapy. *J. Med. Chem.*, **40**, 2793–2809.

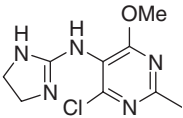
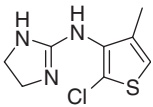
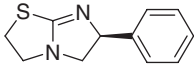
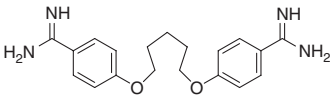
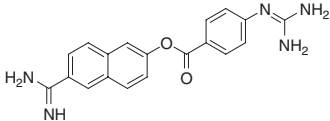
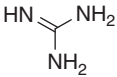
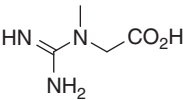
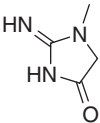
Table 26.1 Amidines, guanidines, and related compounds. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–10 h F 90–100% pb – ur – | V 1.6 CL – Mwt 160.2 PSA 24.4 \AA^2 $\log P$ 1.80 | TOLAZOLINE α -Adrenergic antagonist, treatment of pulmonary hypertension in newborns |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 35 h* F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 260.4 PSA 44.6 \AA^2 $\log P$ 3.76 | OXYMETAZOLINE *intranasal α -Adrenergic agonist, nasal decongestant; too toxic for other than topical administration |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ – F 8–10% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 216.3 PSA 35.8 \AA^2 $\log P$ 1.87 | OXANTEL Anthelmintic against gut parasites |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ – F Low pb – ur <7% | V – CL – Mwt 206.3 PSA 43.8 \AA^2 $\log P$ 2.08 | PYRANTEL Anthelmintic against gut parasites |

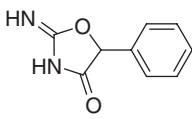
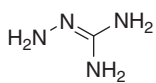
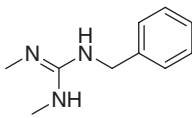
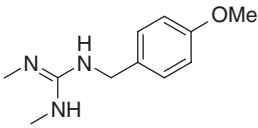
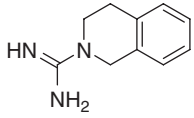
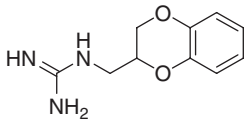
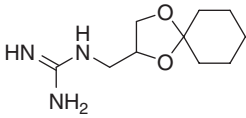
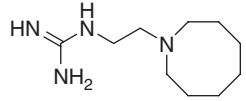
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|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 h F Low pb 54% ur 3–10% | V – CL – Mwt 281.4 PSA 47.9 Å ² $\log P$ 4.08 | PHENTOLAMINE α -Adrenergic antagonist, antihypertensive Metabolism: oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–11 h F 85–100% pb 50–60% ur 50–60% | V 4–7 CL 9–15 Mwt 262.4 PSA 24.4 Å ² $\log P$ 3.49 | CIFENLINE, CIBENZOLINE Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: 4-hydroxylation of phenyl, dehydrogenation of imidazolidine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–9 h F 100% pb <10% ur 64% | V 4–5 CL 6.6 Mwt 180.3 PSA 33.6 Å ² $\log P$ 1.48 | RILMENIDINE α_2 -Adrenergic agonist, antihypertensive, little metabolism |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–24 h F 93% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 284.7 PSA 35.8 Å ² $\log P$ 2.36 | MAZINDOL CNS stimulant, anorexic Metabolism: oxidation of imidazolidine to imidazolidinone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 32 h F High pb – ur 20% | V – CL – Mwt 298.8 PSA 35.8 Å ² $\log P$ 1.18 | CICLAZINDOL Antidepressant; Metabolism: hydrolysis of amidine to <i>N</i> -(3-aminopropyl)indolone, oxidative <i>N</i> -dealkylation to 3-aminopropionic acids |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–6 h F 90% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 300.8 PSA 33.6 Å ² $\log P$ 4.23 | ETIFOXINE, ETAFENOXINE Anxiolytic Metabolism: <i>N</i> -deethylation, phenyl 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.2 h (iv) F 1–23%* pb – ur – | V 3.3 CL 10 Mwt 204.2 PSA 42.9 Å ² $\log P$ 2.31 | IDAZOXAN *rat α_2 -Adrenergic antagonist Metabolism (rat): aromatic hydroxylation |

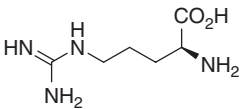
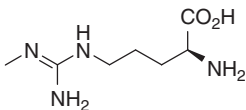
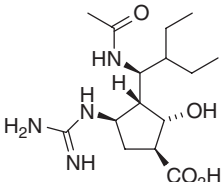
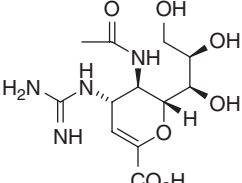
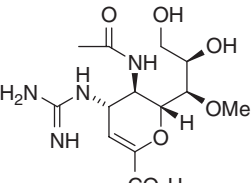
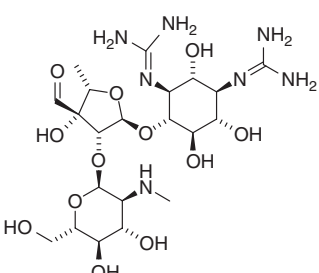
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11 h F >90% pb 80–90% ur 5–20% | V – CL – Mwt 259.1 PSA 33.6 Å ² log P 3.04 | LOFEXIDINE Antihypertensive Main metabolite: 2,6-dichlorophenol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–4 h F 100% pb – ur 79–90% | V 2.9 CL 10 Mwt 270.2 PSA 27.6 Å ² log P 3.49 | ALINIDINE Antihypertensive |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12±7 h F 75–95% pb 20–30% ur 62±11% | V 2.1±0.4 CL 3.1±1.2 Mwt 230.1 PSA 36.4 Å ² log P 2.36 | CLONIDINE α_2 -Adrenergic agonist, antihypertensive, analgesic, crosses bbb; Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 245.1 PSA 62.4 Å ² log P 1.68 | APRACLONIDINE α_2 -Adrenergic agonist to reduce postoperative intraocular pressure (topical application) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.1–4.2 h F 21–40% pb 30% ur <3% | V 2.4 CL 11 Mwt 253.7 PSA 90.4 Å ² log P 2.39 | TIZANIDINE α_2 -Adrenergic agonist, muscle relaxant Metabolism: oxidation of imidazoline, N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 h F – pb 32% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 201.3 PSA 36.4 Å ² log P 2.26 | INDANAZOLINE α -Adrenergic agonist, vasoconstrictor, nasal decongestant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 292.1 PSA 62.2 Å ² log P 1.20 | BRIMONIDINE α_2 -Adrenergic agonist, antiglaucoma; Metabolism: dehydrogenation of imidazolidine, further oxidation to imidazolones |

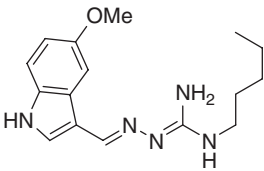
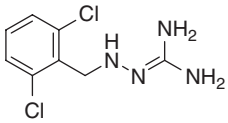
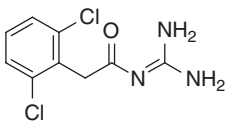
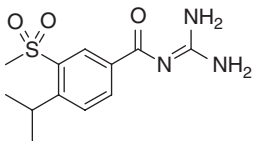
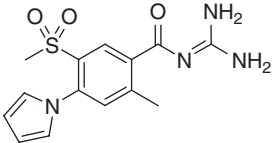
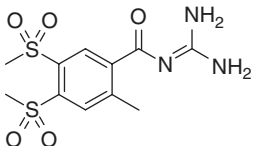
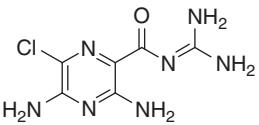
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–2.5 h F 88% pb 6–8% ur 46–70% | V 1.8–3.0 CL 11–15 Mwt 241.7 PSA 71.4 Å ² log P 0.33 | MOXONIDINE Antihypertensive Metabolism: hydroxylation at CH ₃ and imidazolidine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 215.7 PSA 64.7 Å ² log P 1.87 | TIAMENIDINE Antihypertensive |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–6 h F >70% pb 51% ur 2–5% | V 3–4* CL 39–49* Mwt 204.3 PSA 40.9 Å ² log P 1.84 | LEVAMISOLE *rabbit Anthelmintic Metabolite: 4-hydroxyphenyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 d F Negligible pb 69% ur 2–18% | V 190±70 CL 18±7 Mwt 340.4 PSA 118 Å ² log P 2.85 | PENTAMIDINE Antiprotozoal Metabolism (rat): N-hydroxylation, hydroxylation of alkylene chain, O-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 23 min F Low pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 347.4 PSA 138 Å ² log P 2.06 | NAFAMOSTAT Serine protease inhibitor, anticoagulant Metabolism: ester hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–12 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 59.1 PSA 75.9 Å ² log P –1.25 | GUANIDINE Antiviral, antifungal, antipyretic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–8 wk F – pb – ur – | V – CL 3.3 Mwt 131.1 PSA 90.4 Å ² log P –1.26 | CREATINE |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL 3.3 Mwt 113.1 PSA 58.7 Å ² log P –0.80 | CREATININE |

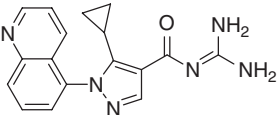
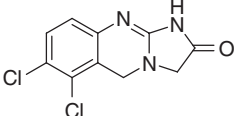
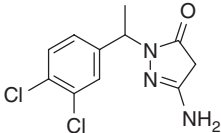
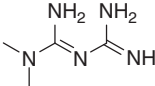
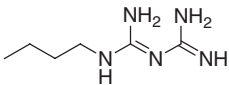
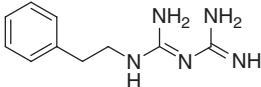
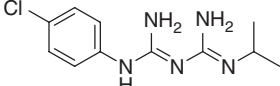
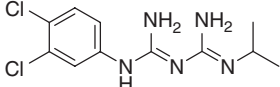
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–18 h F – pb 30–50% ur 50% | V – CL – Mwt 176.2 PSA 64.7 Å ² log P 0.43 | PEMOLINE CNS stimulant; withdrawn in 2005 because of hepatotoxicity |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 74.1 PSA 87.9 Å ² log P –1.48 | AMINOGUANIDINE Nitric oxide synthase inhibitor, antidiabetic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–9 h F – pb – ur High | V 2.8 CL – Mwt 177.3 PSA 36.4 Å ² log P 1.73 | BETHANIDINE Antihypertensive; Metabolism (rat, dog): N-demethylation, N-debenzylation, N-hydroxylation; no significant metabolism in man |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–20 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 207.3 PSA 45.7 Å ² log P 1.62 | MEOBENTINE Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: N- and O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16–30 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 175.2 PSA 53.1 Å ² log P 0.75 | DEBRISOQUIN Antihypertensive; Metabolism: benzylic 4-hydroxylation, then elimination of water, aromatic hydroxylation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ – F >50% pb – ur 1–60% | V – CL – Mwt 207.2 PSA 80.4 Å ² log P 0.84 | GUANOXAN Antihypertensive Metabolism: aromatic 6- and 7-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–12 h F 85% pb 20% ur 40–50% | V 10 CL 41 Mwt 213.3 PSA 80.4 Å ² log P 0.55 | GUANADREL Antihypertensive, does not cross bbb Metabolism: hydrolysis of acetal |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 d F 3–50% pb 0% ur 25–50% | V – CL – Mwt 198.3 PSA 65.1 Å ² log P 1.10 | GUANETHIDINE Antihypertensive Metabolism: oxidation to N-oxide |

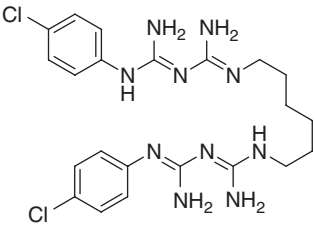
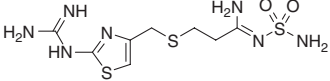
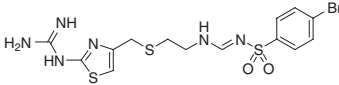
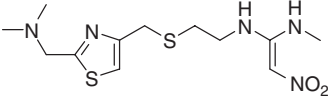
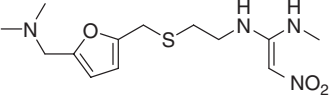
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3 h F 68±9% pb – ur – | V 0.3 CL 15±4 Mwt 174.2 PSA 125 Å ² log P –1.65 | L-ARGININE Insulin secretagogue |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2–2.3 h F – pb Negligible ur <1% | V 0.6–0.8 CL 8.0–9.5 Mwt 188.2 PSA 111 Å ² log P –0.08 | L-N-METHYLARGININE Endogenous nitric oxide synthase inhibitor Metabolism: hydrolysis of guanidine to urea (citrulline) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–21 h (iv) F Low pb <30% ur 90% | V 0.5 CL 0.9–1.6 Mwt 328.4 PSA 149 Å ² log P –1.37 | PERAMIVIR Neuraminidase inhibitor, antiviral |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.6–5.1 h F 2%* pb <10% ur 80% | V 0.3 CL 0.6–2.8 Mwt 332.3 PSA 198 Å ² log P –4.13 | ZANAMIVIR *inhalation: 10–20% Neuraminidase inhibitor, antiviral |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 d F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 346.3 PSA 187 Å ² log P –3.06 | LANINAMIVIR Methylated zanamivir, antiviral (influenza) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.6±0.4 h F – pb 48±14% ur 55±5% | V 0.25±0.02 CL 1.2±0.3 Mwt 581.6 PSA 331 Å ² log P –1.22 | STREPTOMYCIN Antibacterial |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±5 h F 11% pb 98% ur – | V CL 18.3 Mwt 301.4 PSA 85.3 Å ² log P 2.91 | TEGASEROD 5-HT ₄ agonist, treatment of constipation Metabolism: hydrolysis of hydrazone, oxidation to indole-3-carboxylic acid; withdrawn in 2007 because of stroke and heart attack risk |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–14 h F – pb 90% ur <1% | V CL 100–180 Mwt 231.1 PSA 74.3 Å ² log P 2.66 | GUANABENZ α ₂ -Adrenergic agonist, antihypertensive; Metabolites: 4-hydroxy, 2,6-dichlorobenzylalcohol, 2,6-dichlorobenzaldehyde |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–23 h F 60–100% pb 64% ur 24–37% | V CL 2.6–5.2 Mwt 246.1 PSA 79.0 Å ² log P 1.33 | GUANFACINE α ₂ -Adrenergic agonist, antihypertensive; Metabolism: aromatic 3-hydroxylation, then glucuronidation, sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.5 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V CL – Mwt 283.4 PSA 121 Å ² log P –1.01 | CARIPORIDE Cardioprotective, sodium/proton exchange inhibitor (NHE-1) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.2 h* F – pb 72% ur 43%* | V CL 8.2 Mwt 320.4 PSA 126 Å ² log P –1.03 | ENIPORIDE *iv Cardioprotective, sodium/proton exchange inhibitor (NHE-1) Metabolism: hydrolysis of pyrrole to 4-aminobenzamide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–7 h F >90% pb 27% ur 90% | V CL 2.3–5.7 Mwt 333.4 PSA 164 Å ² log P –1.66 | EMD 87580 Cardioprotective, sodium/proton exchange inhibitor (NHE-1) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 21±3 h F 50% pb 40% ur 49±10% | V CL 10±2 Mwt 229.6 PSA 157 Å ² log P 0.93 | AMILORIDE Sodium channel blocker, diuretic |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5 h* F – pb 77% ur – | V 3.2* CL 31* Mwt 320.4 PSA 105 Å ² log P 0.20 | ZONIPORIDE *iv, monkey Cardioprotective, sodium/proton exchange inhibitor (NHE-1) Metabolism: oxidation to 2-quinolone by aldehyde oxidase |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3 h F 70% pb – ur <1% | V 12 CL 2.1 Mwt 256.1 PSA 44.7 Å ² log P 1.13 | ANAGRELIDE Antithrombocytthermic; Metabolism: hydroxylation of CH ₂ CO, then dihydrolysis to 2-amino-3,4-dihydro-5,6-dichloroquinazoline, then N-glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–17 h F – pb 65% ur 5% | V 1 CL – Mwt 272.1 PSA 58.7 Å ² log P 2.10 | MUZOLIMIDE Diuretic Metabolism: hydrolysis of amide, then decarboxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–19 h F 40–60% pb Negligible ur 100% | V 0.9–3.9 CL 6.3–10.1 Mwt 129.2 PSA 89 Å ² log P –1.25 | METFORMIN Antidiabetic No metabolites known |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–6 h F – pb 10% ur 35% | V 3 CL – Mwt 157.2 PSA 97.8 Å ² log P –1.20 | BUFORMIN Antidiabetic, withdrawn in 1978 in most countries for risk of inducing lactic acidosis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–15 h F 50–60% pb 12–20% ur 54% | V 5–10 CL – Mwt 205.3 PSA 102.8 Å ² log P 0.1 | PHENFORMIN Antidiabetic; Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation; withdrawn in 1978 for risk of inducing lactic acidosis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–15 h F >90% pb 75% ur 40–60% | V 20–79 CL 14–27 Mwt 253.7 PSA 83.8 Å ² log P 2.49 | CHLORGUANIDE, PROGUANIL Antimalarial Metabolism: cyclization to triazine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18±7 h F – pb 63% ur – | V 29 CL 21±2 Mwt 288.2 PSA 83.8 Å ² log P 3.27 | CHLORPROGUANIL Antimalarial Metabolism: cyclization to triazine |

(continued overleaf)

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|---|-----------|-----------|-------|--------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | – | V | – | CHLORHEXIDINE |
| | F | <1% | CL | – | Antiseptic |
| | pb | 87% | Mwt | 505.5 | Metabolite: 4-chloroaniline |
| | ur | – | PSA | 168 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 4.58 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.6±1.0 h | V | 1.3±0.2 | FAMOTIDINE |
| | F | 45±14% | CL | 7.1±1.7 | Histamine H ₂ antagonist, |
| | pb | 17±7% | Mwt | 337.5 | antiulcerative |
| | ur | 67±15% | PSA | 233 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | –1.66 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 14–20 h | V | 1.7–2.7 | EBROTIDINE |
| | F | – | CL | – | Histamine H ₂ antagonist, |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 477.4 | antiulcerative |
| | ur | 1% | PSA | 195 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.83 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.3±0.3 h | V | 1.2±0.5 | NIZATIDINE |
| | F | 90% | CL | 10±3 | Histamine H ₂ antagonist, |
| | pb | 28±7% | Mwt | 331.5 | antiulcerative; active metabolite: |
| | ur | 61±3% | PSA | 140 Å ² | N-monodesmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 3.8±1.9 h) |
| | | | log P | –0.49 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.1±0.2 h | V | 1.3±0.4 | RANITIDINE |
| | F | 52±11% | CL | 10.4±1.1 | Histamine H ₂ antagonist, |
| | pb | 15±3% | Mwt | 314.4 | antiulcerative |
| | ur | 69±6% | PSA | 112 Å ² | Metabolites: N-oxide, S-oxide, |
| | | | log P | –0.07 | desmethyl |

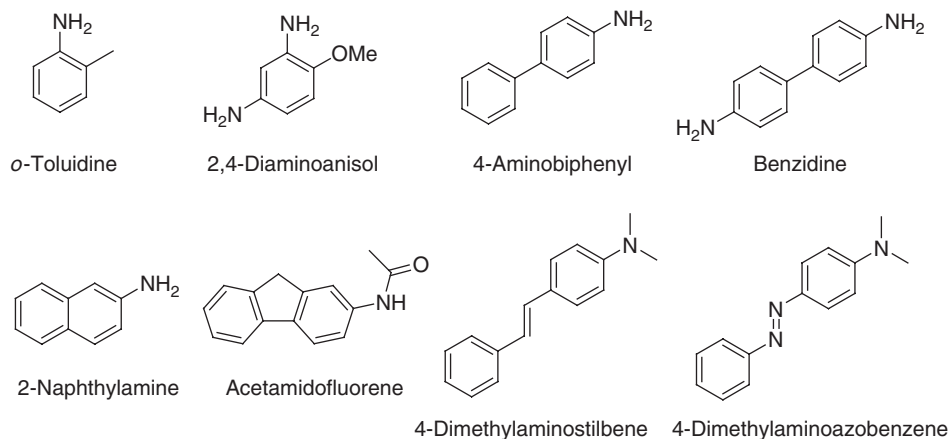
$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

27

Anilines

Although a few unacylated aromatic amines have become successful drugs, medicinal chemists wisely tend to avoid this substructure because of its potential toxicity. Aniline itself is not carcinogenic, but it usually contains small amounts of highly carcinogenic impurities. Aniline is oxidized *in vivo* to *N*-phenylhydroxylamine and nitrosobenzene, which mediate the oxidation of hemoglobin (Fe^{2+}) to methemoglobin (Fe^{3+}) and lead to hemolytic anemia.

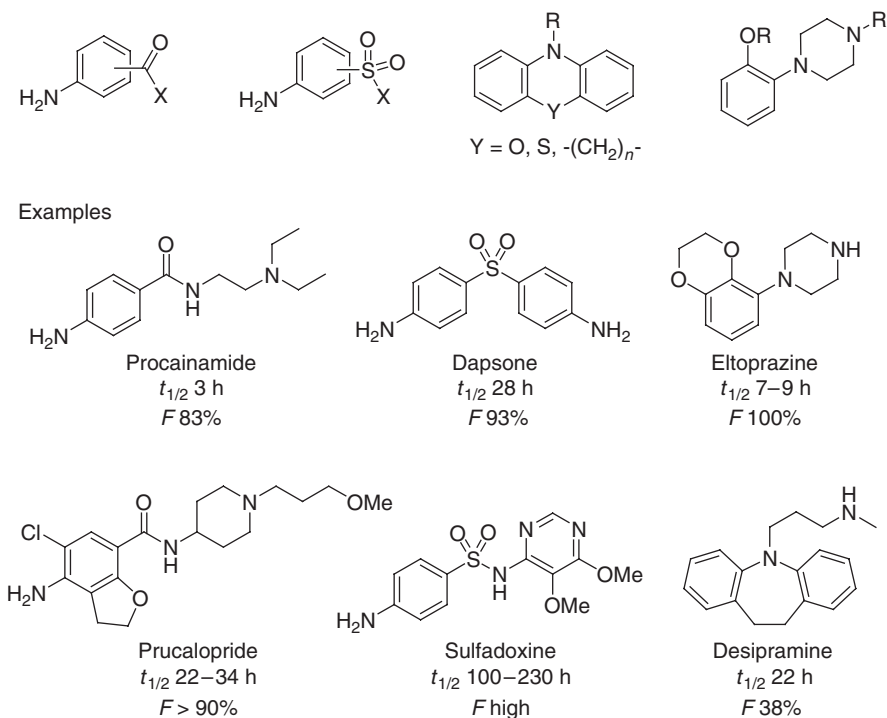
Several drugs containing primary aromatic amines, such as nomifensine and phenacetin, had to be withdrawn because of kidney or liver toxicity. Some anilines are potent carcinogens, for instance, those shown in Scheme 27.1.



Scheme 27.1 Carcinogenic anilines.

The carcinogenicity of anilines results from metabolic activation. The metabolites of electron-rich anilines include *N*-arylhydroxylamines, their *O*-sulfates, and nitrosoarenes, which are electrophilic arylating reagents capable of *N*-aryllating nucleic acids. Compounds that may be metabolized to aromatic amines, such as *N*-arylamides, -ureas or -carbamates, nitroarenes, azo compounds, or aromatic azides, may also be carcinogenic.

Less electron-rich anilines do not readily undergo oxidative metabolism and are therefore less toxic. Derivatives of aminobenzoic acids and aminobenzenesulfonic acids are usually not carcinogenic, and many drugs with these substructures are currently in use. A selection of such “safe” aromatic amines is given in Scheme 27.2. These amines are weak bases (pK_a 1.5–3.5) and will be unprotonated in most organs.

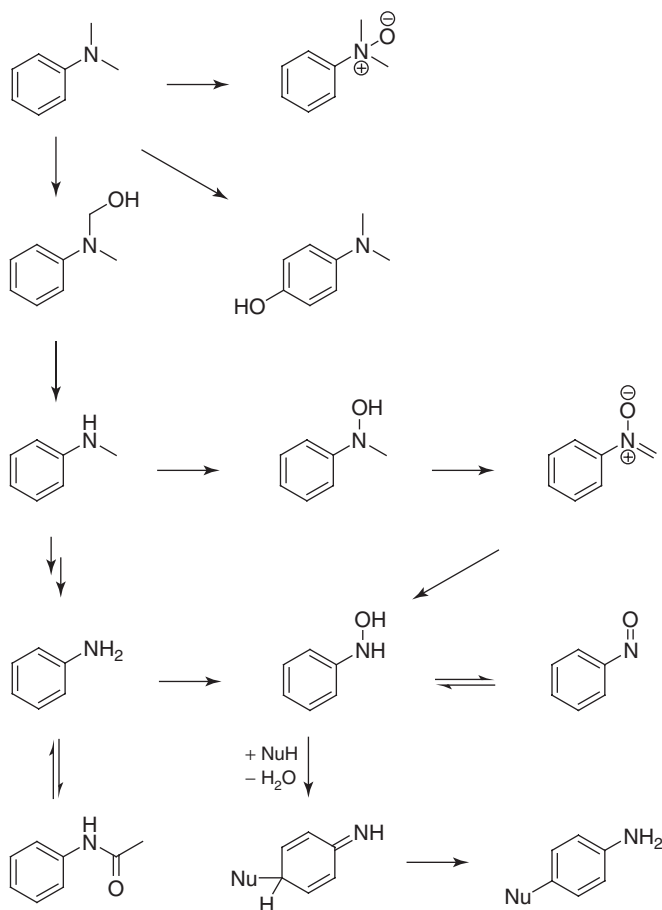


Scheme 27.2 Anilines of low toxicity.

If a lead contains a potentially toxic aromatic amine, it may be replaced by a heteroaromatic amine, such as an aminopyridine, aminopyrimidine, or aminothiazole. These heteroarenes are often metabolically stable and easier to prepare than substituted benzenes. Sterically undemanding aminopyridines may, however, be cytochrome *P*450 (CYP) inhibitors by virtue of their ability to bind to $Fe^{2+/3+}$. Moreover, some polycyclic heteroaromatic amines are proven carcinogens (Chapter 59).

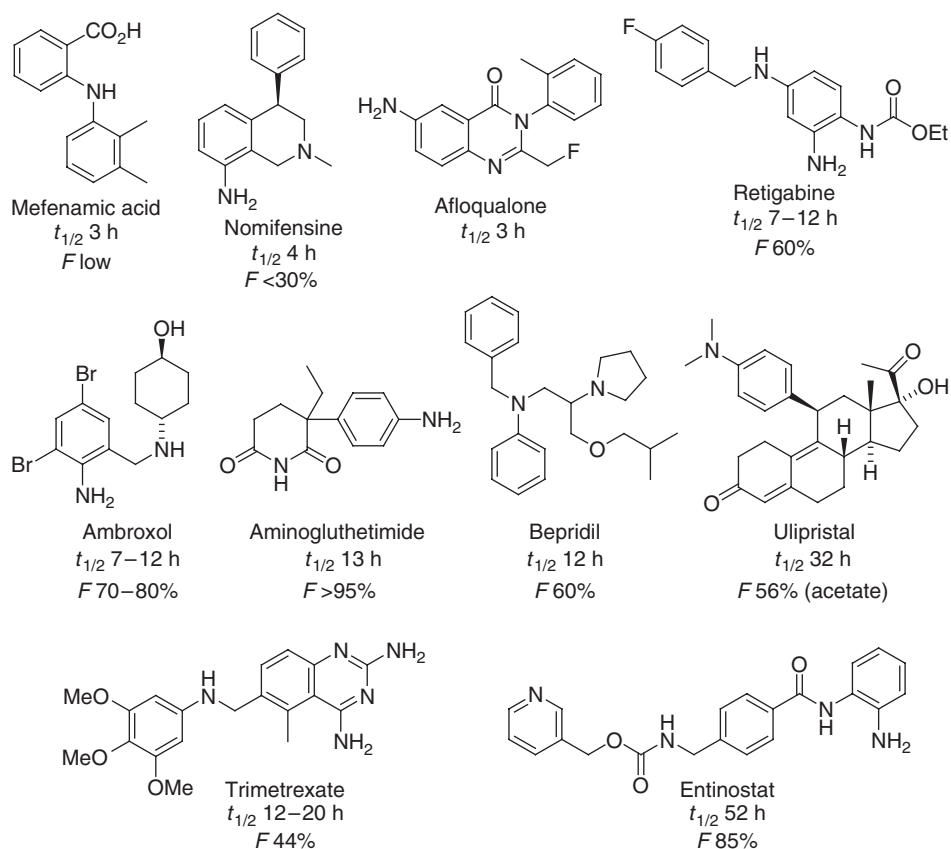
27.1 Metabolism

The typical metabolic transformations of anilines include N-dealkylation, N-oxidation, aromatic hydroxylation, and reversible N-acetylation. The resulting *N*-arylhydroxylamines or *N*-nitrosoarenes are soft electrophiles and electrophilic arylating or aminating agents, in particular if these metabolites are further activated by O-sulfation or O-acetylation (Scheme 27.3). *N*-Acylanilines often undergo hydrolysis *in vivo* to release the unacylated aniline.



Scheme 27.3 Metabolic transformations of anilines.

The rate and extent to which these chemical transformations occur are highly dependent on the precise structure of the aniline. Electron-poor anilines usually only undergo N-acetylation or no metabolic transformation at all. The examples in Scheme 27.4 illustrate the types of anilines that have acceptably low toxicities for humans (excluding nomifensine) and their plasma half-lives.

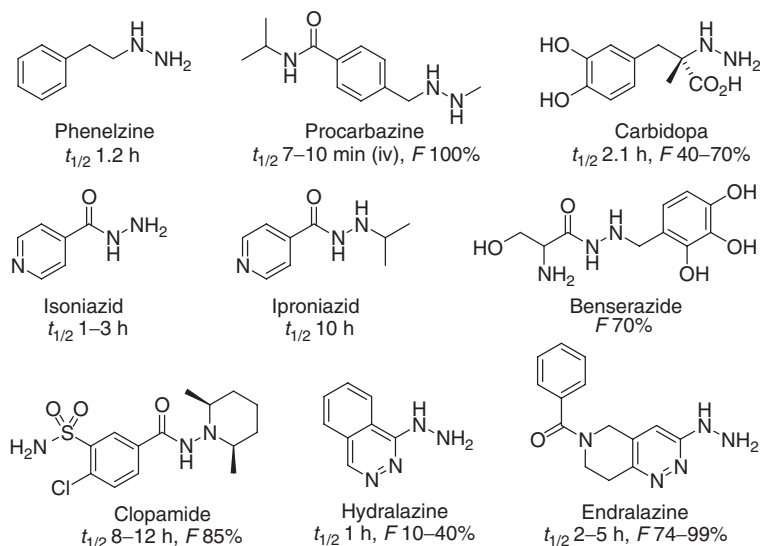


Scheme 27.4 Anilines as drugs.

28

Hydrazines, Acylhydrazines, and Hydrazones

The few alkylhydrazines used as drugs are monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors (phenelzine and iproniazide), cytotoxic agents (procarbazine), antihypertensives (hydralazine), or amino acid decarboxylase inhibitors (carbidopa and benserazide) (Scheme 28.1). Alkylhydrazines (pK_a 6.5–8.0) are less basic but more nucleophilic than amines, and acylhydrazines (pK_a 2–3) or hydrazones (pK_a 3–5) are still less basic than hydrazines.



Scheme 28.1 Hydrazine derivatives as drugs.

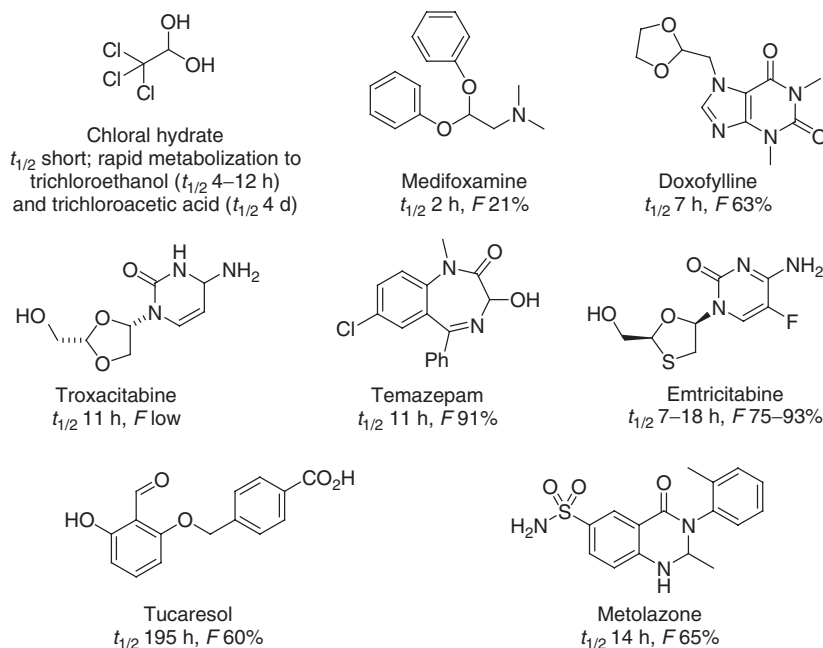
Typical metabolic transformations of hydrazines include oxidation to azo and azoxy compounds, reductive N–N bond cleavage, and N-acetylation. If acylhydrazines are oxidized to azo compounds, these will usually quickly decompose by either nucleophilic displacement (hydrolysis) or homolytic C–N bond cleavage to yield highly reactive acyl radicals.

29

Aldehydes

Because aldehydes are highly electrophilic, few drugs contain a free aldehyde functionality. If they do, the formyl group will usually react quickly *in vivo* with some nucleophile, will be oxidized to an acid, or reduced to an alcohol. Thus, the sedative chloral hydrate is only a prodrug of trichloroethanol. Tucaresol is an electron-rich benzaldehyde of moderate electrophilicity, which acts by forming an imine (a Schiff base) with an amino group of hemoglobin and thereby increases the stability of the oxy-conformation of this protein.

Cyclic acetals or hemiacetals of aldehydes are, however, sufficiently stable and a common substructure of many drugs, for example, in nucleoside or carbohydrate analogs (Scheme 29.1). Oximes (e.g., pralidoxime) and hydrazones (e.g., azimilide) of aldehydes can be found among therapeutic agents as well.

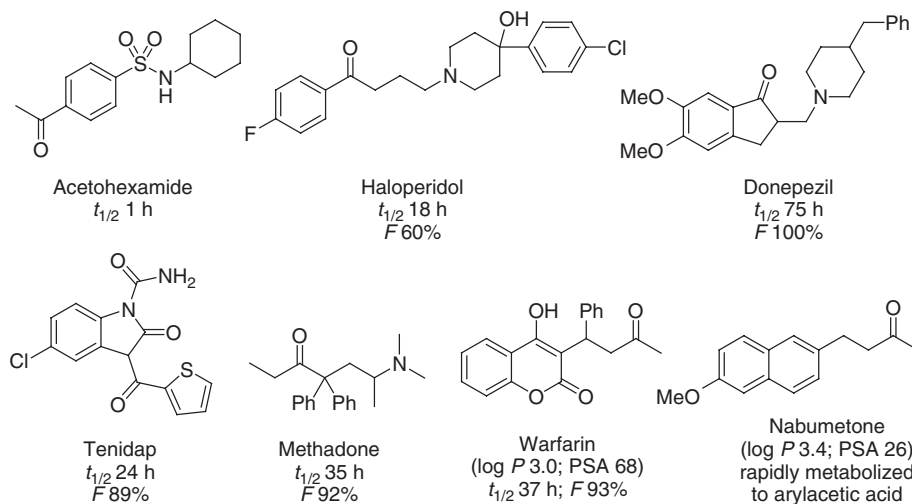


Scheme 29.1 Aldehydes and derivatives thereof as drugs.

30

Ketones

Ketones are less electrophilic and chemically reactive than aldehydes, and can be highly orally available and long-lived in human plasma. This functional group is, however, often the weakest point in a molecule. The rate of metabolic transformation depends on the electronic properties of the substituents at the ketone carbonyl group. The more electron donating and sterically demanding the substituents, the higher will be the metabolic stability of a ketone. Benzophenones and alkanoyl benzenes are particularly stable. A selection of therapeutic ketones is sketched in Scheme 30.1 (see also Table 30.1).

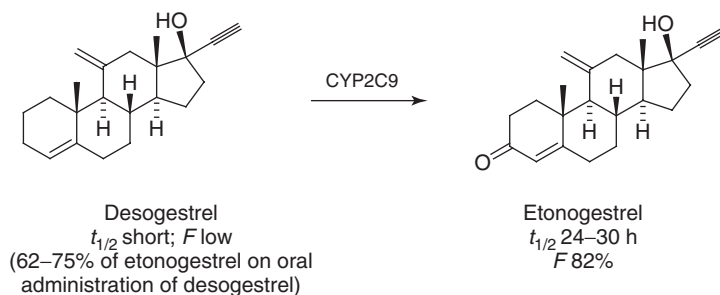


Scheme 30.1 Ketones as drugs.

The different rates of metabolic degradation of warfarin and nabumetone are remarkable. Warfarin is metabolized rather slowly by aromatic hydroxylation and α -hydroxylation and reduction of the ketone. In nabumetone, despite its similarity to warfarin, the ketone functionality is quickly degraded to an arylacetic acid. This

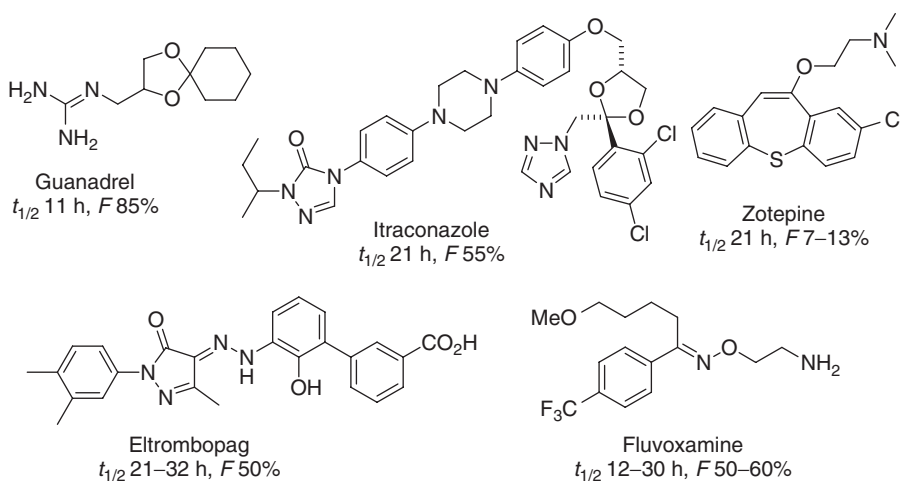
could be due to the higher lipophilicity and lower polar surface area (PSA) of nabumetone, which should increase its affinity to liver enzymes and increase its rate of oxidative metabolism.

Ketones are sometimes produced *in vivo* by oxidation of secondary alcohols or reactive methylene groups. The latter may therefore serve as prodrugs of ketones. One such instance is the oral contraceptive desogestrel, which is metabolized to the active ketone etonogestrel (Scheme 30.2).



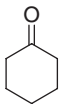
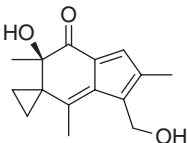
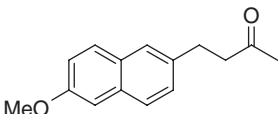
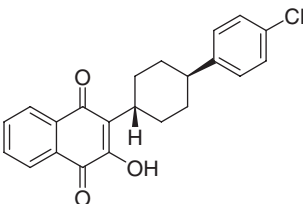
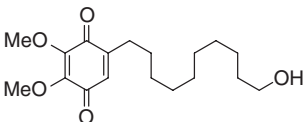
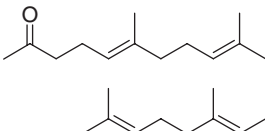
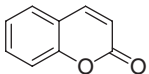
Scheme 30.2 Metabolism of desogestrel.

Some acetals or amins of ketones can also be sufficiently stable to serve as drugs, as illustrated by the examples in Scheme 30.3. Particularly stable are acetals of ketones with an α -heteroatom (O, S, N, halogen), or with positive charges close to the acetal, which destabilize the intermediate carbocation required for the acid-mediated hydrolysis. Other condensation products of ketones that can be found in drugs include hydrazones, oximes, and enol ethers.

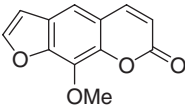
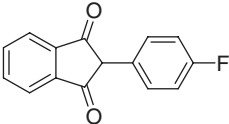
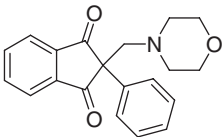
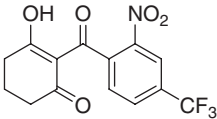
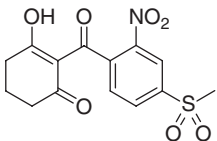
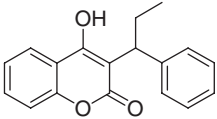
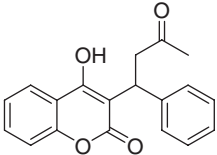


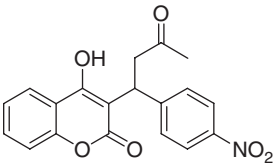
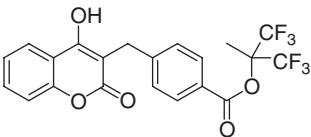
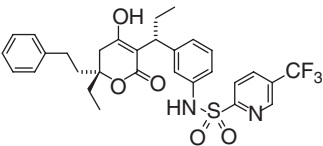
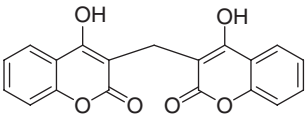
Scheme 30.3 Ketone derivatives as drugs.

Table 30.1 Ketones, lactones, and related compounds. V in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | |
|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h F – pb – ur <1%* | V 2.6* CL 27±4* Mwt 98.1 PSA 17.1 Å ² $\log P$ 0.82 | CYCLOHEXANONE *dog Metabolites: cyclohexanol ($t_{1/2}$ 4.8 h), 1,2-cyclohexanediol ($t_{1/2}$ 16 h), 1,4-cyclohexanediol ($t_{1/2}$ 18 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.3 h (iv) F – pb 51–52% ur 0% | V 3.1 CL 140 Mwt 246.3 PSA 57.5 Å ² $\log P$ 1.13 | IROFULVEN Antineoplastic Metabolism: isomerization to 3-(2-hydroxyethyl)phenol, hydroxylation of both vinylic CH ₃ groups |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 23±4 h F 35% pb >99% ur 50% | V/F 0.79±0.38 CL/F 0.37±0.25 Mwt 228.29 PSA 26.3 Å ² $\log P$ 3.40 | NABUMETONE Prodrug for methoxynaphthylacetic acid, all values given for acid upon oral dosing of prodrug |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 62–80 h F 47% pb >99% ur Negligible | V 0.6±0.2 CL 0.15 Mwt 366.8 PSA 54.4 Å ² $\log P$ 6.18 | ATOVAQUONE Antiprotozoal No metabolites known; excreted unchanged in bile |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–13 h F Low pb 96% ur Negligible | V – CL – Mwt 338.4 PSA 72.8 Å ² $\log P$ 3.91 | IDEBENONE Nootropic Metabolism: oxidative degradation of side chain, reduction to hydroquinone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.4±1.2 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 330.6 PSA 17.1 Å ² $\log P$ 7.61 | TEPRENONE Gastroprotective |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h (iv) F 1–3% pb 86% ur Low | V – CL – Mwt 146.1 PSA 26.3 Å ² $\log P$ 1.39 | COUMARIN Flavor; extensive first-pass metabolism to 7-hydroxycoumarin and 2-hydroxyphenylacetic acid, then glucuronidation |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|-------------------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.4–3.2 h <i>F</i> Low <i>pb</i> 80–90% <i>ur</i> Negligible | <i>V</i> CL 10–157 Mwt 216.2 PSA 48.7 Å ² log <i>P</i> 1.52 | 0.5–3.2 – – – – | METHOXSALEN, 8-METHOXYPSORALEN Photosensitizer, pigmentation agent Metabolism: oxidative ring opening of furan to arylacetic acid, demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 31–69 h <i>F</i> High <i>pb</i> 99% <i>ur</i> 35% | <i>V</i> CL – Mwt 240.2 PSA 34.1 Å ² log <i>P</i> 3.42 | – – – – – | FLUINDIONE Anticoagulant Metabolism: hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> High <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> CL – Mwt 321.4 PSA 46.6 Å ² log <i>P</i> 1.08 | – – – – – | OXAZIDIONE Oral anticoagulant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 54 h <i>F</i> High <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> CL 0.07 Mwt 329.2 PSA 97.0 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.99 | 0.1–0.5 – – – – | NITISINONE, NTBC Treatment of tyrosinemia, herbicide Metabolism: cleavage to 2-nitro-4-trifluoromethylbenzoic acid, hydroxylation of cyclohexane |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9–1.3 h <i>F</i> >95% (rat) <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> 49–72% | <i>V</i> CL – Mwt 339.3 PSA 140 Å ² log <i>P</i> –0.99 | – – – – – | MESOTRIONE Herbicide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 90–140 h <i>F</i> 100% <i>pb</i> 99% <i>ur</i> 2% | <i>V</i> CL – Mwt 280.3 PSA 46.5 Å ² log <i>P</i> 4.64 | 0.18 – – – – | PHENPROCUMON Anticoagulant Metabolism: glucuronidation, aromatic 4', 6-, and 7-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 30–40 h <i>F</i> 93±8% <i>pb</i> 99±1% <i>ur</i> <2% | <i>V</i> CL 0.05±0.02 Mwt 308.33 PSA 67.51 Å ² log <i>P</i> 3.03 | 0.14±0.06 – – – – | WARFARIN Anticoagulant, CYP2C9 substrate Metabolism: aromatic and benzylic hydroxylation |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3–9 h | V | 0.1–0.3 | ACENOCOUMAROL, NICOUMALONE Anticoagulant Metabolism: reduction to aniline, then N-acetylation, reduction of ketone to alcohol, aromatic hydroxylation of chromenone |
| | F | 83% | CL/F | 2 | |
| | pb | 99% | Mwt | 353.3 | |
| | ur | <0.2% | PSA | 109 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.97 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 107–140 h | V | 0.49 (dog) | TECARFARIN *rat Anticoagulant (same mechanism as warfarin) Metabolism: ester hydrolysis |
| | F | 80–90%* | CL | – | |
| | pb | 99% | Mwt | 460.3 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 72.8 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 7.40 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 5–6 h | V | 0.1 | TIPRANAVIR Antiviral Metabolite: glucuronide |
| | F | 42% (rat) | CL | 0.3 | |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 602.7 | |
| | ur | 0.5% | PSA | 114 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 6.92 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 7–100 h | V | – | DICOUMAROL Vitamin K antagonist, anticoagulant |
| | F | – | CL | – | |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 336.3 | |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 93.1 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.05 | |

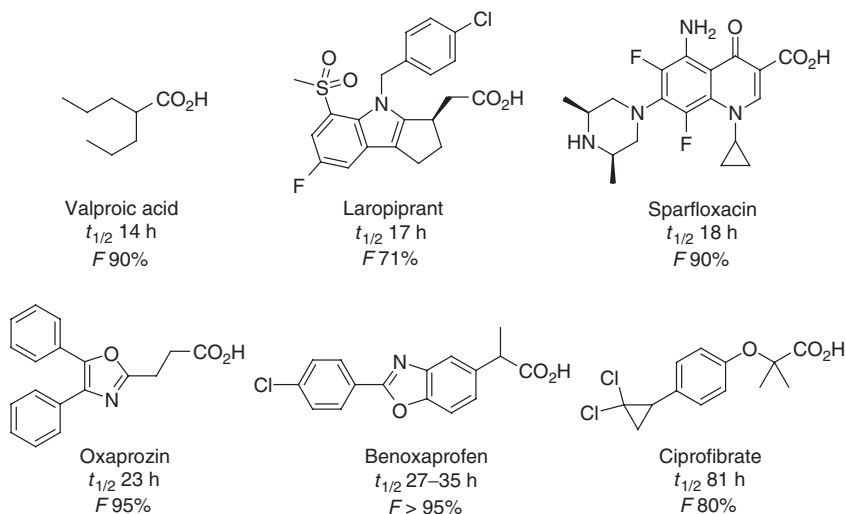
$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL , clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

31

Carboxylic Acids

With a pK_a of 3–5 in water, carboxylic acids are deprotonated and negatively charged in most parts of the body, excluding the stomach. The carboxyl group is an important pharmacophore of many drugs: fibrates, statins, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors, and β -lactam and quinolone antibacterials contain essential carboxyl groups (Tables 31.1, 31.2). These compounds are usually well absorbed, but have low volumes of distribution (poor distribution in body tissues), and few cross the blood–brain barrier (bbb). Their volume of distribution is generally much smaller than that of amines, because negatively charged carboxylate groups show little affinity to the negatively charged phospholipid bilayers.

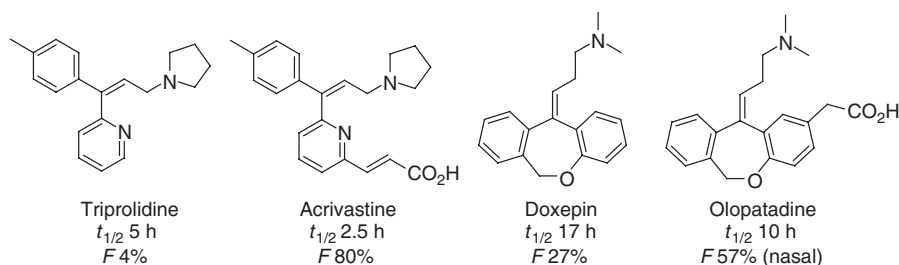
The metabolic degradation of carboxylic acids (usually acyl glucuronidation or amidation) is slow, as illustrated by the long-lived drugs in Scheme 31.1.



Scheme 31.1 Carboxylic acids as drugs.

Drugs may also contain carboxyl groups not as pharmacophore but only to increase solubility and polarity. With lipophilic leads such an increase of polarity

can suppress the first-pass effect and thereby enhance oral bioavailability. Moreover, an increased polar surface area (PSA) may keep compounds from crossing the bbb. For instance, the bioavailability of the histamine H_1 antagonists triprolidine or doxepin can be enhanced, and their CNS (central nervous system)-mediated sedative effect suppressed by introducing a carboxyl group (Scheme 31.2).



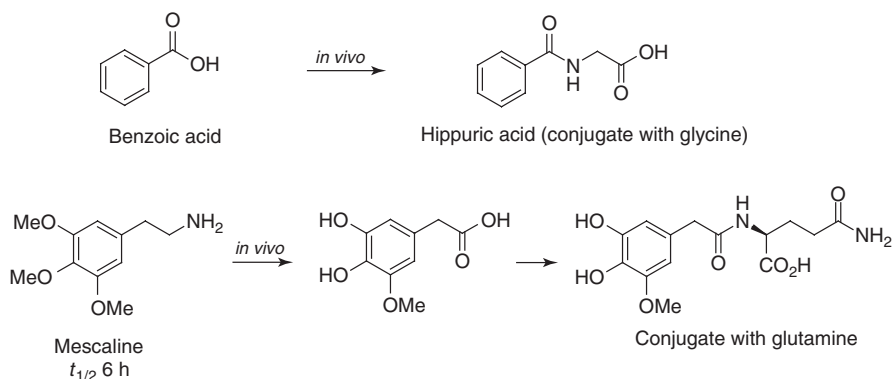
Scheme 31.2 Effect of the carboxyl group on pharmacokinetic (PK) properties.

31.1

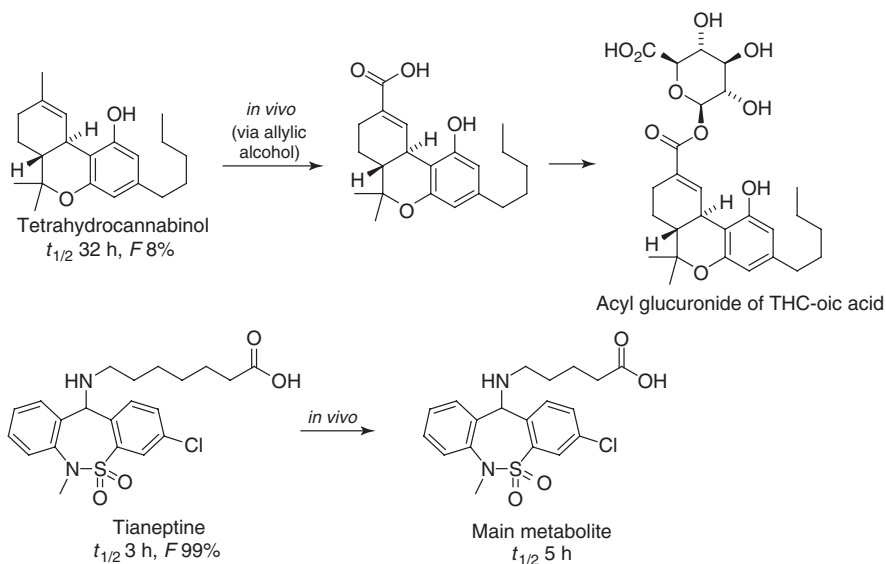
Metabolism

Common metabolic transformations of carboxyl groups are activation by thioester formation with coenzyme A, followed by acylation of glycine, glutamine, or other amino acids [1]. Esterification of carboxylic acids with glucuronic acid is mediated by uridine diphosphate glucuronosyltransferases, enzymes which also glucuronylate phenols, alcohols, thiols, and amines. These enzymes are mainly located in the liver and also in the intestine, kidneys, brain, and skin. Fatty acids or related compounds often undergo oxidative degradation to carboxylic acids of lower molecular weight. All these transformations can also occur with carboxylic acids formed by phase I metabolism of other functional groups.

Illustrative examples of the metabolic fate of carboxylic acids are given in Scheme 31.3.



Scheme 31.3 Metabolism of carboxylic acids.

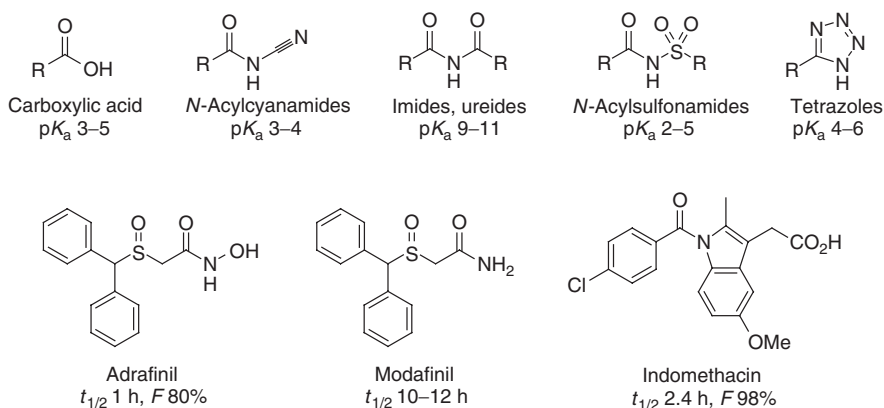


Scheme 31.3 (Continued).

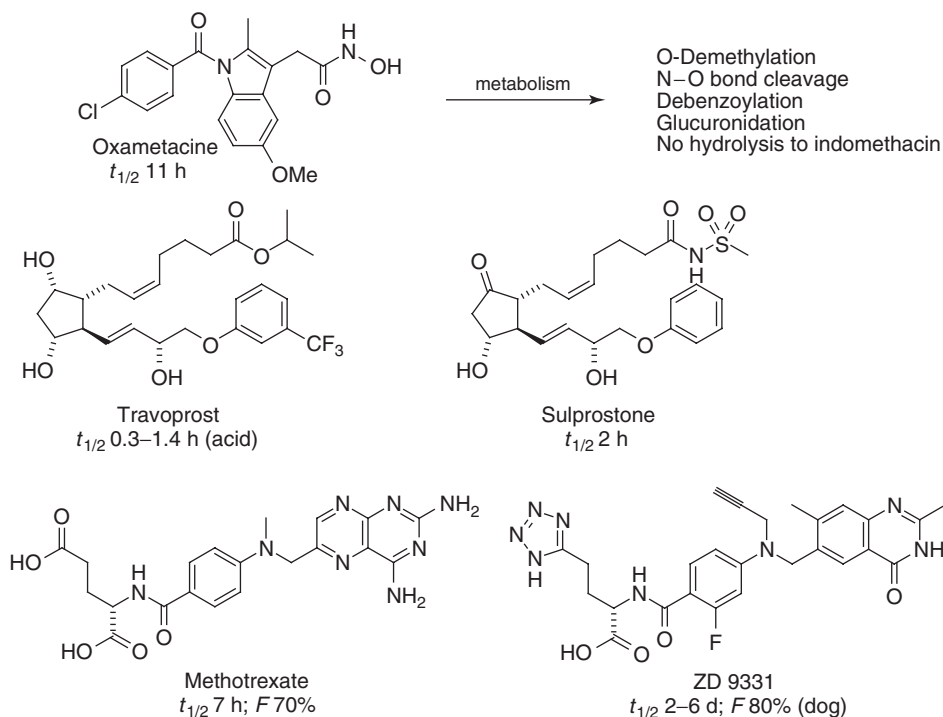
31.2

Bioisosteres of Carboxylic Acids

If the carboxyl group of a lead is metabolized too quickly, a metabolically more resistant bioisostere may be tested. Various functional groups are similarly acidic as carboxylic acids but sometimes more resistant to metabolic derivatization [2]. These include sulfonic acids, phosphonic acids, hydroxamic acids, *N*-acylcyanamides, *N*-acylsulfonamides, and tetrazoles. Imides and ureides (*N*-acylureas) are not acidic enough to act as carboxylic acid bioisostere (Scheme 31.4). Hydroxamic



Scheme 31.4 Bioisosteres of carboxylic acids.



Scheme 31.4 (Continued).

acids are metabolically unstable, but may serve as prodrugs of amides (e.g., adrafinil as prodrug of modafinil) or of carboxylic acids (e.g., ibuproxam as prodrug of ibuprofen). Oxametacine, however, is not a prodrug but a real bioisostere of indomethacin.

31.3

Amino Carboxylic Acids, N-Acyl Amino Acids, and Related Compounds

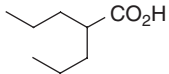
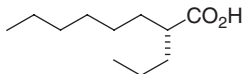
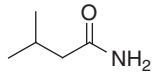
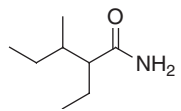
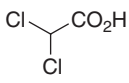
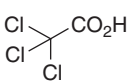
Amino acids show minimal solubility in water at their isoelectric point, that is, at the pH where an internal salt is formed and the molecule has no net electric charge. In contrast to peptides, low-molecular-weight amino acids are orally bioavailable, and some even cross the bbb. Many of these hydrophilic molecules undergo little metabolism and are mostly assimilated or excreted unchanged in urine.

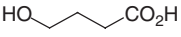
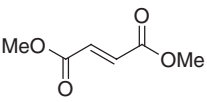
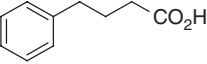
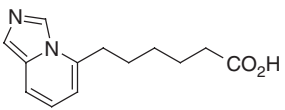
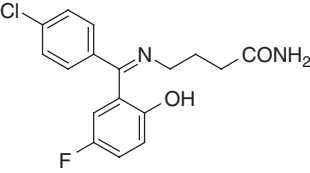
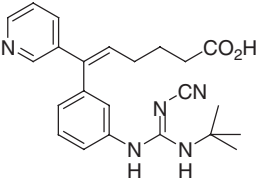
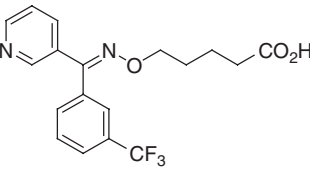
Unnatural analogs of amino acids can be antimetabolites or prodrugs, agonists, or antagonists of natural amino acids, including those that act as neurotransmitters (γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA), glycine, glutamic acid, and aspartic acid) (Table 31.2).

References

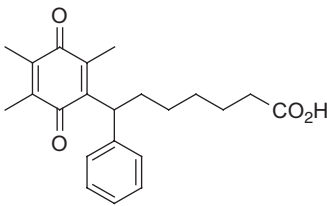
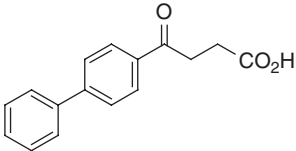
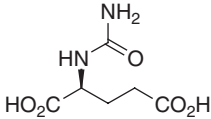
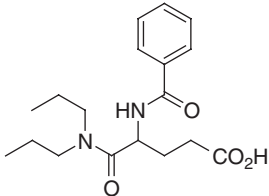
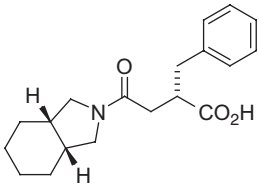
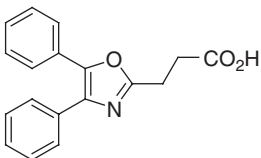
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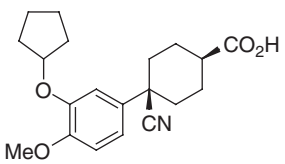
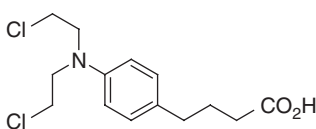
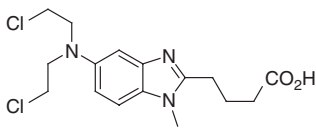
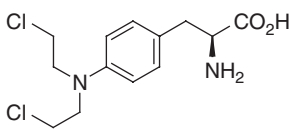
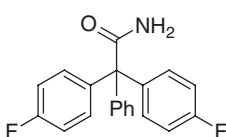
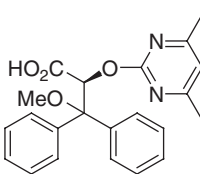
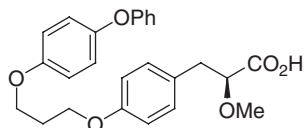
Table 31.1 Carboxylic acids, esters, and amides, and hydroxamic acids. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14±3 h F 90±10% pb 93±1% ur 1.8±2.4% | V 0.22±0.07 CL 0.11±0.02 Mwt 144.2 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 2.58 | VALPROIC ACID Anticonvulsant, antimigraine, antimanic; Metabolism: dehydrogenation (single, to 2-propyl-2-pentenoic acid ($t_{1/2}$ 1–2 d), and twofold), 3-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h (iv) F – pb 99% ur – | V 0.1–0.2 CL 0.7–1.0 Mwt 186.3 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 4.31 | ARUNDIC ACID Astrocyte modulating agent for treatment of stroke |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h F High pb Negligible ur <4% | V – CL – Mwt 101.2 PSA 43.1 Å ² log P 0.67 | ISOVALERAMIDE Anticonvulsant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–10 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 143.2 PSA 43.1 Å ² log P 1.89 | VALNOCTAMIDE Antiepileptic No metabolism to acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.4 h F – pb – ur <2% | V 0.2–0.4 CL 2–5 Mwt 128.9 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 0.67 | DICHLOROACETIC ACID Caustic, keratolytic, topical astringent Metabolism: hydrolysis to glyoxylate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 90–100 h F – pb 82–87% ur 93% | V – CL – Mwt 163.4 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 1.73 | TRICHLOROACETIC ACID Metabolite of chloral, hemostatic, caustic for chemical skin peeling |

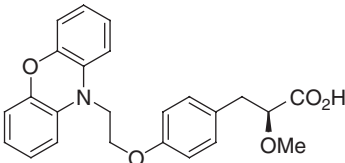
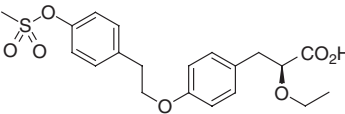
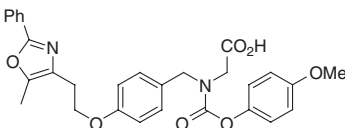
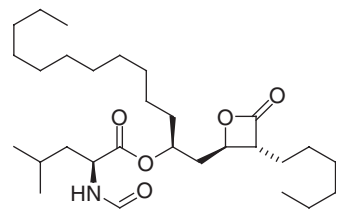
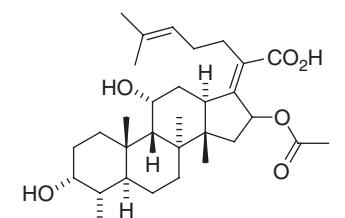
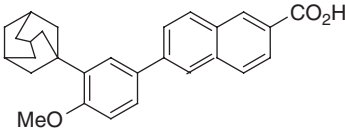
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5–1.0 h F 25% pb <1% ur <5% | V 0.2–0.4 CL – Mwt 104.1 PSA 57.5 Å ² log P –0.76 | 4-HYDROXYBUTYRIC ACID (Na-salt: OXYBATE SODIUM) Sedative, narcotic Metabolism: oxidation to succinic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12 min F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 144.1 PSA 52.6 Å ² log P 0.43 | DIMETHYL FUMARATE NF-κB activation inhibitor for the treatment of multiple sclerosis Metabolite: monomethyl fumarate ($t_{1/2}$ 36 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8 h F 78% pb 81% ur – | V 0.2 CL 4 Mwt 164.2 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 2.31 | 4-PHENYLBUTYRIC ACID Treatment of hyperammonemia (urea cycle disorders) Metabolism: oxidative degradation to phenylacetic acid ($t_{1/2}$ 1.2 h, pb 56%) and <i>N</i> -phenylacetylglutamine ($t_{1/2}$ 2.4 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 0.5 CL 5 Mwt 232.3 PSA 54.6 Å ² log P 2.11 | PIRMAGREL Thromboxane synthase inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F 60% pb 98% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 334.8 PSA 75.7 Å ² log P 3.14 | PROGABIDE GABA analog Metabolism: hydrolysis of amide and imine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–11 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 405.5 PSA 110 Å ² log P 3.95 | TERBOGREL Thromboxane A ₂ receptor and synthase inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–9 h F 90% pb 60% ur – | V 0.1–0.2 CL – Mwt 366.3 PSA 71.8 Å ² log P 3.63 | RIDOGREL Antithrombotic, thromboxane A ₂ synthase inhibitor |

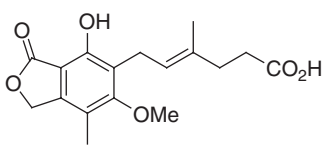
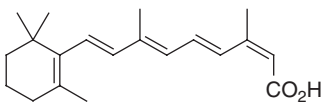
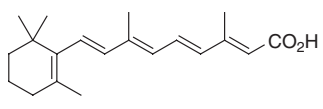
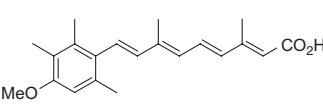
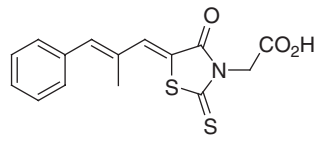
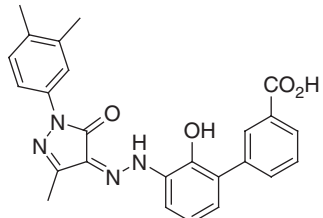
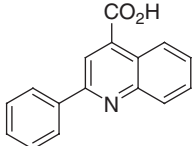
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|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 22 h F 89%* pb >96% ur – | V 0.04 CL 0.2 Mwt 354.4 PSA 71.4 Å ² log P 4.63 | SERATRODAST *monkey; thromboxane A ₂ antagonist, antiasthmatic Metabolism: glucuronidation, reduction to hydroquinone, then glucuronidation or sulfation, oxidative degradation of alkylene chain, hydroxylation of methyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–17 h F – pb >99% ur <2% | V 2–4 CL – Mwt 254.3 PSA 54.4 Å ² log P 3.12 | FENBUFEN NSAID Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol, oxidative degradation to biphenylacetic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–10 h F – pb – ur 9% | V 25–89 CL 88 Mwt 190.2 PSA 130 Å ² log P –0.74 | CARGLUMIC ACID Carbamoyl phosphate I synthase activator for treatment of hyperammonemia |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 42 h (rat) F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 334.4 PSA 86.7 Å ² log P 2.69 | PROGLUMIDE Cholecystokinin antagonist, anticholinergic Metabolism: N-depropylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–5 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 315.4 PSA 57.6 Å ² log P 2.73 | MITIGLINIDE K _{ATP} channel blocker, antidiabetic Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 23±2 h F 95–100% pb 99.5% ur <1% | V 0.19±0.05 CL 0.035±0.007 Mwt 293.3 PSA 63.3 Å ² log P 3.15 | OXAPROZIN Antiinflammatory Metabolism: glucuronidation, hydroxylation of phenyl groups |

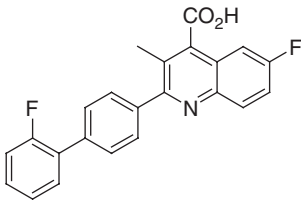
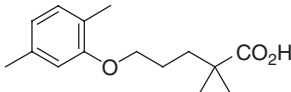
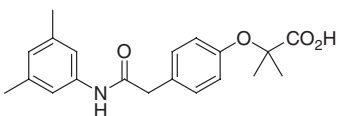
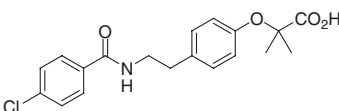
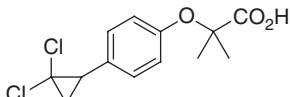
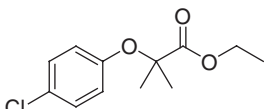
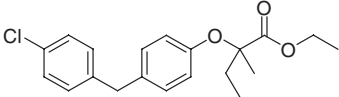
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–8 h F 100% pb 99.5% ur <1% | V 0.23 CL 0.5 Mwt 343.4 PSA 79.6 Å ² log P 3.30 | CILOMILAST Antiasthmatic Metabolism: glucuronidation, 3-hydroxylation of cyclopentyl, O-decyclopentylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3±0.9 h F 87±20% pb 99% ur <1% | V 0.29±0.21 CL 2.6±0.9 Mwt 304.2 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P 2.61 | CHLORAMBUCIL Antineoplastic Metabolism: oxidative degradation to arylacetic acid, substitution of Cl by OH |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5 h F – pb >95% ur 10–45% | V 0.24–0.32 CL 7.5 Mwt 358.3 PSA 58.4 Å ² log P 2.38 | BENDAMUSTINE Antineoplastic Metabolism: substitution of Cl by OH, N-demethylation, conjugation with glutathione, hydroxylation of propylene |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.4±0.2 h F 71±23% pb 90±5% ur 12±7% | V 0.5±0.2 CL 5.2±2.9 Mwt 305.2 PSA 66.6 Å ² log P 0.54 | MELPHALAN Antineoplastic Metabolism: sequential displacement of chloride by hydroxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–13 d F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 323.3 PSA 43.1 Å ² log P 3.97 | SENICAPOC, ICA-17043 Gardos channel inhibitor for treatment of sickle cell disease |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–17 h F 80% pb 99% ur 3.3% | V – CL – Mwt 378.4 PSA 81.5 Å ² log P 6.24 | AMBRISENTAN Endothelin antagonist, antihypertensive Metabolism: hydroxylation of methyl groups at pyrimidine; glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 199±75 h* F 100%* pb >99%* ur 0%* | V/F 0.16* CL/ F 0.16* Mwt 422.5 PSA 74.2 Å ² log P 4.81 | NAVEGLITAZAR *monkey PPAR-α/γ agonist, antidiabetic Metabolism: racemization, dehydrogenation to methoxycinnamic acid, 4-hydroxylation of phenoxy group, then sulfation |

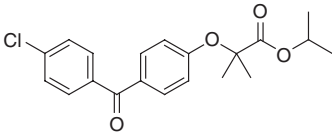
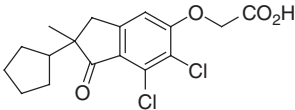
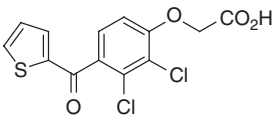
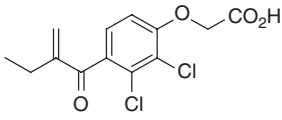
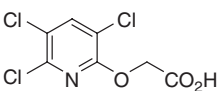
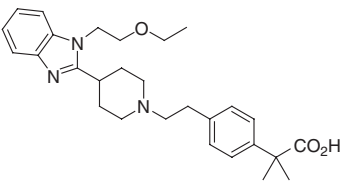
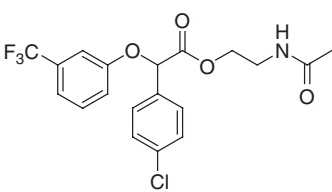
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|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 68–124 h F 68–93%* pb – ur 0% | V 0.5* CL 2.3* Mwt 419.5 PSA 68.2 Å ² log P 3.88 | RAGAGLITAZAR *rat PPAR- α/γ agonist, antidiabetic; discontinued because of cancerogenicity |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 45 h F 100% pb 99.9% ur 20% | V 0.14 CL 0.04 Mwt 408.5 PSA 108 Å ² log P 2.64 | TESAGLITAZAR PPAR- α/γ agonist, antidiabetic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 19–27 h F 79%* pb – ur <4% | V 0.5–1.7** CL 12–14*** Mwt 516.5 PSA 111 Å ² log P 5.59 | MURAGLITAZAR *monkey **rat *** estimate PPAR- α/γ agonist, antidiabetic Metabolism: glucuronidation, O-demethylation, O-dealkylation, hydroxylation of oxazolyl-CH ₂ R, 4-hydroxylation of phenyl group |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F <1% pb 99% ur <2% | V – CL – Mwt 495.7 PSA 81.7 Å ² log P 7.00 | ORLISTAT Pancreatic lipase inhibitor, antiobesity agent Metabolism: lactone hydrolysis, ester hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–15 h F 91% pb 98–99% ur <0.1% | V 0.3 CL Mwt 516.7 PSA 104 Å ² log P 5.76 | FUSIDIC ACID Antibiotic Metabolism: oxidation of allylic CH ₃ groups, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17±10 h F Low pb >99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 412.5 PSA 46.5 Å ² log P 8.21 | ADAPALENE Retinoid for treatment of acne Metabolism: O-demethylation, hydroxylation |

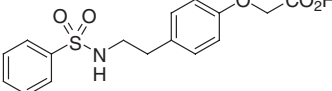
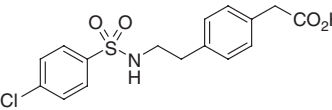
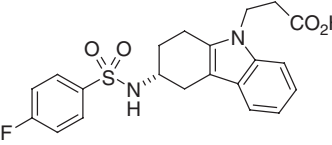
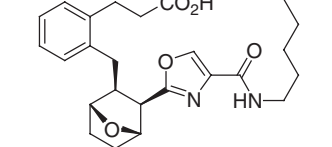
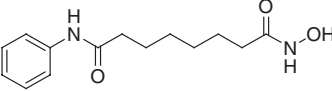
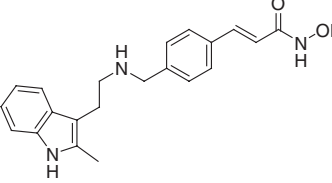
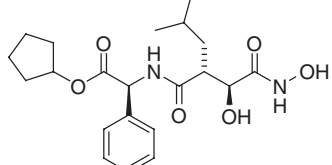
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17–22 h F 71–100% pb 98.7% ur <1% | V 3.6 CL 2.8 Mwt 320.3 PSA 93.1 Å ² $\log P$ 3.84 | MYCOPHENOLIC ACID Immunosuppressant Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14±5 h F 25% pb 99.9% ur <1% | V/F 7 CL/F 5.5±2.8 Mwt 300.4 PSA 37.3 Å ² $\log P$ 6.26 | ISOTRETINOIN Antiacne agent Metabolite: acyl glucuronide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.6–1.0 h F 50% pb – ur – | V 1.1* CL – Mwt 300.4 PSA 37.3 Å ² $\log P$ 6.26 | TRETINOIN *calculated Acid form of vitamin A |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 50–60 h F 60% pb – ur >99% | V 10.2 CL – Mwt 326.44 PSA 46.5 Å ² $\log P$ 6.00 | ACITRETIN Metabolite of etretinate, antipsoriatic Metabolism: trans–cis isomerization |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1±0.4 h F – pb 90% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 319.4 PSA 115 Å ² $\log P$ 2.02 | EPALRESTAT Aldose reductase inhibitor Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 21–32 h F 50% pb 99% ur 0% | V 0.13 CL 0.18 Mwt 442.5 PSA 115 Å ² $\log P$ 3.71 | ELTROMBOPAG Trombopoetin agonist Metabolism: oxidation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F High pb – ur <5% | V – CL – Mwt 249.3 PSA 50.2 Å ² $\log P$ 4.18 | CINCHOPHEN Analgesic, induces ulcers, hepatotoxic Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation |

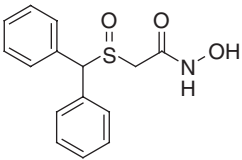
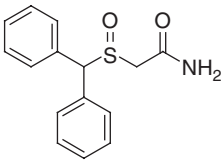
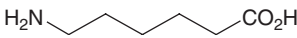
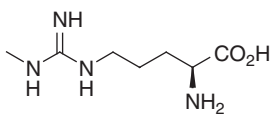
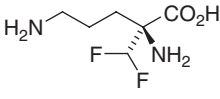
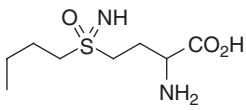
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13–18 h F High pb >98% ur 0.1–6%* | V 0.24±0.08 CL 0.5±0.2 Mwt 375.4 PSA 50.2 Å ² log P 6.69 | BREQUINAR *iv Immunosuppressant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1±0.2 h F 98±1% pb 97–99% ur <1% | V 0.14±0.03 CL 1.7±0.4 Mwt 250.3 PSA 46.5 Å ² log P 4.30 | GEMFIBROZIL Antilipemic Metabolism: hydroxylation and oxidation to CO ₂ H of aromatic 3-methyl group |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–6 h F 95% pb 95% ur 95% | V 0.2 CL <1 Mwt 341.4 PSA 75.6 Å ² log P 3.35 | EFAPROXIRAL, RSR-13 Allosteric modifier of hemoglobin Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–3.0 h F 100% pb 95% ur 35–40% | V 0.24–0.35 CL 1.4 Mwt 361.8 PSA 75.6 Å ² log P 2.50 | BEZAFIBRATE Antilipemic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 81 h F 80% pb 99% ur 7% | V 0.15±0.02 CL 0.02 Mwt 289.2 PSA 46.5 Å ² log P 2.93 | CIPROFIBRATE Antilipemic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13±3 h* F 95±10%* pb 97%* ur 57±2%* | V/F 0.11±0.02* CL/ F 0.12±0.01* Mwt 242.7 PSA 35.5 Å ² log P 3.88 | CLOFIBRATE *acid on oral dosing of ester Antilipemic; prodrug of CPIB |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18±10 h* F – pb >90%* ur Low | V – CL 0.5 Mwt 346.9 PSA 35.5 Å ² log P 6.00 | BECLOBRATE *acid on oral dosing of ester Antihyperlipoproteinemic Metabolism: fast hydrolysis of ester, glucuronidation |

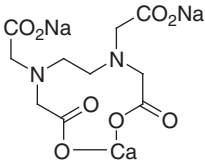
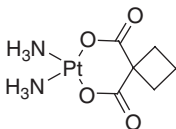
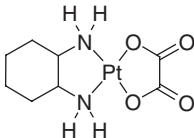
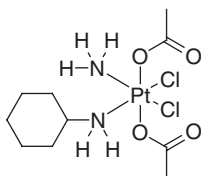
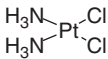
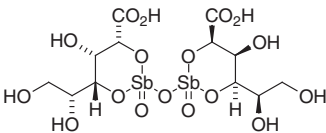
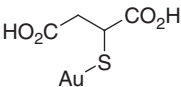
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20–27 h* F 60%* pb >99%* ur Negligible | V 0.9* CL 0.17* Mwt 360.8 PSA 52.6 Å ² $\log P$ 5.80 | FENOFIBRATE *acid on oral dosing of ester Antilipemic, prodrug; ester is not detectable in plasma Further metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F – pb – ur <10% | V – CL – Mwt 357.2 PSA 63.6 Å ² $\log P$ 3.81 | MK-473 Diuretic, uricosuric, antihypertensive Metabolism: cyclopentyl hydroxylation, then oxidation to ketones |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h F – pb 95–98% ur – | V 0.1 CL – Mwt 331.2 PSA 91.8 Å ² $\log P$ 3.04 | TIENILIC ACID, TICRYNAFEN Diuretic, uricosuric, antihypertensive Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, S-oxidation to electrophilic thiophene S-oxide; withdrawn in 1982 for inducing autoimmune hepatitis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h F 7–35% pb >98% ur – | V 0.26 CL 8.7 Mwt 303.1 PSA 63.6 Å ² $\log P$ 2.84 | ETHACRYNIC ACID Diuretic Active metabolite: addition product to cysteine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h F – pb 94–99%* ur 80% | V 0.1–0.2 CL 0.3 Mwt 256.5 PSA 59.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.35 | TRICLOPYR *dog Herbicide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–14 h F 25–69%* pb 85% ur 33% | V 0.5 CL 4.6 Mwt 463.6 PSA 62.7 Å ² $\log P$ 5.06 | BILASTINE *animals Histamine H ₁ antagonist No metabolism in humans |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24–48 h* F High pb >99%* ur 39%* | V – CL – Mwt 415.8 PSA 64.6 Å ² $\log P$ 3.77 | HALOFENATE *acid on oral dosing of ester Prodrug of halofenic acid |

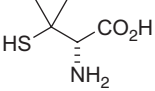
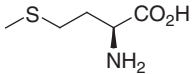
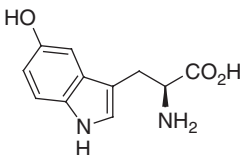
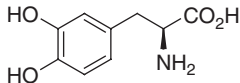
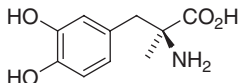
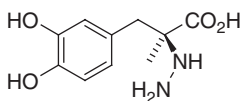
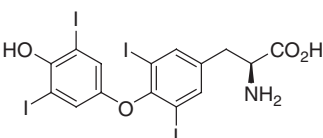
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.7–2.9 h F – pb – ur 52–62% | V 0.85±0.09 CL 10 Mwt 335.4 PSA 101 Å ² log P 1.38 | SULOTROBAN Thromboxane A ₂ antagonist |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7 h F High pb – ur 40% | V – CL – Mwt 353.8 PSA 91.9 Å ² log P 2.68 | DALTROBAN Thromboxane A ₂ antagonist |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 100%* pb >95% ur <8% | V – CL 12* Mwt 416.5 PSA 96.8 Å ² log P 3.02 | RAMATROBAN *dog Prostaglandin (PGD ₂ , PGH ₂) and thromboxan (TxA ₂) antagonist Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 22 h F 48% pb – ur Low | V 4.4 CL 6.4 Mwt 440.5 PSA 102 Å ² log P 2.49 | IFETROBAN Thromboxane antagonist Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 43% pb 71% ur Negligible | V 0.5 CL 28 Mwt 264.3 PSA 78.4 Å ² log P 0.86 | VORINOSTAT Histone deacylase inhibitor for treatment of cutaneous T-cell lymphoma Metabolism: O-glucuronidation, oxidative degradation to succinoyl anilide ($t_{1/2}$ 11 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11–31 h F 30% pb – ur – | V 0.4 CL 7.3 Mwt 349.4 PSA 77.2 Å ² log P 3.62 | PANOBINOSTAT Histone deacylase inhibitor Metabolism: reductive N–O bond cleavage, amide hydrolysis, oxidative degradation of cinnamic acid, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–4 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 406.5 PSA 125 Å ² log P 2.24 | TOSEDOSTAT Orally available antineoplastic, aminopeptidase inhibitor Active metabolite: acid ($t_{1/2}$ 6–11 h) |

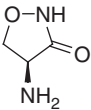
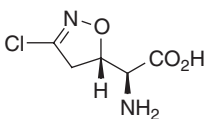
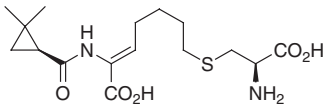
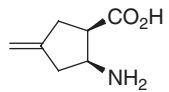
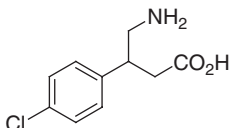
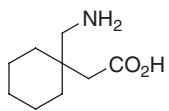
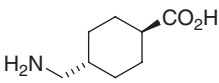
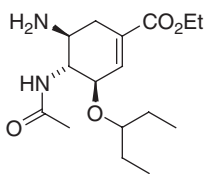
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h F 80% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 289.4 PSA 85.6 Å ² log P 0.77 | ADRAFINIL CNS stimulant Metabolism: N-deoxygenation to modafinil |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–12 h F – pb 62% ur 10% | V 0.9 CL 1.3 Mwt 273.4 PSA 79.4 Å ² log P 1.18 | MODAFINIL CNS stimulant, analeptic Metabolism: hydrolysis to carboxylic acid Armodafinil = <i>R</i> -modafinil ($t_{1/2}$ 15 h) |
| $t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; CPIB, <i>p</i> -chlorophenoxyisobutyric acid; PPAR, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor. | | | |
| Table 31.2 Amino acids, hydroxy acids, and related compounds. V in l kg ^{–1} ; CL in ml min ^{–1} kg ^{–1} ; Mwt in g mol ^{–1} . | | | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.9 h F – pb 8% ur 70–86% | V 0.39 CL 2.7 Mwt 131.2 PSA 63.3 Å ² log P 0.03 | 6-AMINOHEXANOIC ACID ε-AMINOCAPROIC ACID Hemostatic Metabolism: oxidative deamination to adipic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2–2.3 h F – pb Negligible ur <1% | V 0.6–0.8 CL 8.0–9.5 Mwt 188.2 PSA 111 Å ² log P –0.08 | L-N-METHYLARGININE Endogenous nitric oxide synthase inhibitor Metabolism: hydrolysis of guanidine to urea (citrulline) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–8 h F 54% pb 0% ur 80% (iv) | V 0.34 CL – Mwt 182.2 PSA 89.3 Å ² log P 0.30 | EFLORNITHINE Antineoplastic, antiprotozoal |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 37 min (iv)* F 2%* pb – ur 60% (iv) | V 0.3–0.5 CL 3–4 Mwt 222.3 PSA 113 Å ² log P 0.52 | BUTHIONINE SULFOXIMINE *mouse Inhibits glutathione biosynthesis |

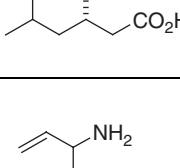
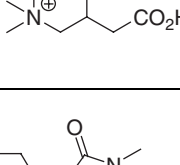
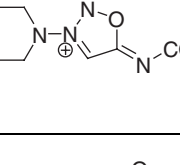
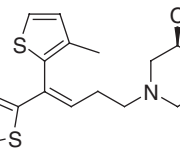

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5–1.0 h* F <5% pb 0% ur >95% | V 0.05–0.23 CL 0.8 Mwt 288.2 PSA 167 Å ² $\log P$ –4.65 | CALCIUM DISODIUM EDETATE, CaNa ₂ EDTA *iv Chelator for heavy-metal poisoning |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.0±0.2 h F – pb 0% ur 77±5% | V 0.24±0.03 CL 1.5±0.3 Mwt 371.3 PSA 107.9 Å ² $\log P$ –5.20 | CARBOPLATIN Antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25–27 h F – pb >90% ur 40–50% | V 8.3–11.6 CL 2.2–2.4 Mwt 397.3 PSA 85.8 Å ² $\log P$ –4.96 | OXALIPLATIN Antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–12 h F – pb 90–94% ur 10% | V – CL 5.2–6.2* Mwt 500.3 PSA 96.9 Å ² $\log P$ –3.18 | SATRAPLATIN *monkey Antineoplastic Metabolism: reductive abstraction of both acetoxy groups |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5±0.1 h F – pb >90% ur 23±9% (iv) | V 0.3 CL 6 Mwt 300.1 PSA 55.3 Å ² $\log P$ –4.89 | CISPLATIN Antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 33–76 h F – pb – ur >80% | V 0.22 CL – Mwt 679.8 PSA 276.3 Å ² $\log P$ –5.34 | STIBOGLUCONATE Anthelmintic iv or im administration only |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25±5 d F – pb >95% ur 70% | V 0.26±0.05 CL 7.0±0.6 Mwt 346.1 PSA 74.6 Å ² $\log P$ –1.18 | GOLD SODIUM THIOMALATE AUROTHIOMALATE (Acid shown) Antipruritic, treatment of rheumatoid arthritis |

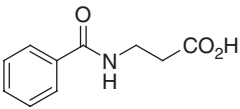
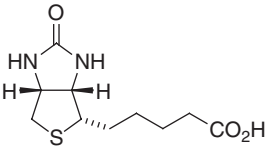
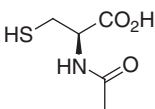
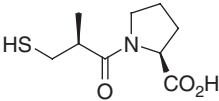
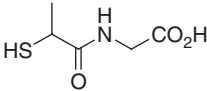
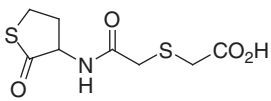
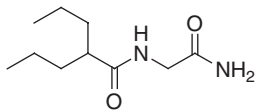
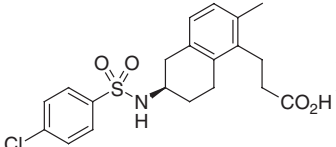
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–3.0 h F 40–70% pb 80% ur 10–40% | V 0.9 CL 10.7 Mwt 149.2 PSA 102 Å ² $\log P$ 0.85 | PENICILLAMINE Antirheumatic, chelating agent (copper) Metabolism: disulfide formation with itself and cysteine, S-methylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0–1.5 h F 100% pb – ur 5–10% | V – CL – Mwt 149.2 PSA 88.6 Å ² $\log P$ 0.22 | METHIONINE Hepatoprotectant, antidote, urinary acidifier, nutritional supplement |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–7 h F 50–85% pb 60% ur – | V – CL 1.7–3.8 Mwt 220.2 PSA 99.3 Å ² $\log P$ –0.29 | OXITRIPTAN, 5-HYDROXYTRYPTOPHAN Prodrug of serotonin, antidepressant, antimigraine; crosses bbb Metabolism (in CNS): decarboxylation, then oxidation to hydroxyindolylacetic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.4±0.4 h F 41±16% pb – ur <1% | V 1.7±0.4 CL 23±4 Mwt 197.2 PSA 104 Å ² $\log P$ –1.15 | LEVODOPA Antiparkinsonian |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.8±0.6 h F 42±16% pb 1–16% ur 40±13% | V 0.46±0.15 CL 3.7±1.0 Mwt 211.2 PSA 104 Å ² $\log P$ –0.74 | METHYLDOPA Antihypertensive |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.1 h F 40–70% pb 76% ur 30% | V – CL – Mwt 226.2 PSA 116 Å ² $\log P$ –1.75 | CARBIDOPA Antiparkinsonian (in combination with levodopa); does not cross bbb Metabolism: reductive N–N bond cleavage |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 d F 91% pb >99.9% ur – | V 10 CL – Mwt 776.9 PSA 92.8 Å ² $\log P$ 4.72 | THYROXINE, T ₄ Thyroid hormone |

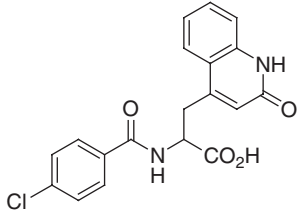
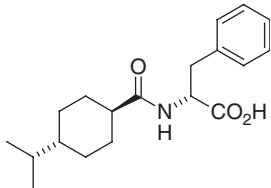
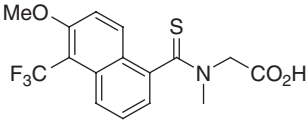
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| | | | | |
|---|---|----------------------------------|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–30 h F 70–90% pb <20% ur 60–70% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 0.2 – 102.1 64.3 Å ² –2.99 | CYCLOSERINE Bacteriostatic, crosses bbb |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10±4 h (iv) F – pb Negligible ur 14–19% (iv) | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 0.5 0.69 178.6 84.9 Å ² –0.78 | ACIVICIN Antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8±0.1 h F Low pb 35% ur 70±3% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 0.20±0.03 3.0±0.3 358.5 155 Å ² 2.42 | CILASTATIN Values for simultaneous administration with imipenem Dipeptidase inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–7 h F 60–100%* pb <1% ur 70–90% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 0.6–0.9** 1.7–5.0** 141.2 63.3 Å ² –0.16 | ICOFUNGIPEN, PLD-118 *animals **rabbit Antifungal |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–7 h F 95% pb 30% ur 70–80% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 0.84 2.6 213.7 63.3 Å ² 0.78 | BACLOFEN Muscle relaxant, GABA agonist Metabolism: deamination to 4-hydroxy-3-arylbutyric acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6.5±1.0 h F 60% pb 0% ur 100% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 0.80±0.09 1.6±0.3 171.2 63.3 Å ² 0.62 | GABAPENTIN Antiepileptic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 33–35% pb 3% ur >95% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 0.1–0.2 1.6–1.8 157.2 63.3 Å ² 0.50 | TRANEZAMIC ACID TRANEXAMIC ACID Hemostatic (antifibrinolytic); crosses bbb |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–10 h* F 75%* pb 3%* ur 3% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 0.4* 4.8* 312.4 90.7 Å ² 1.71 | OSELTAMIVIR Prodrug of acid, neuraminidase inhibitor, antiviral *acid on oral administration of ester |

| | | | |
|---|--|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 h F >90% pb 0% ur 99% | V 0.5 CL – Mwt 159.2 PSA 63.3 Å ² log P 1.12 | PREGABALIN Anticonvulsant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–8 h F 50–65% pb – ur 50–70% | V 0.8 CL 1.7 Mwt 129.2 PSA 63.3 Å ² log P –0.10 | VIGABATRIN Antiepileptic Racemate (only the S enantiomer is active) Metabolism: lactam formation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–15 h F 9–25% pb 0% ur 70–80% | V 0.26–0.82 CL 1.5–1.7 Mwt 147.2 PSA 60.4 Å ² log P –5.56 | CARNITINE Antihyperlipoproteinemic Metabolite: trimethylamine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F >90% pb – ur – | V 1.8 CL – Mwt 284.4 PSA 75.2 Å ² log P 2.75 | ETOZOLIN Diuretic Metabolism: hydrolysis of ester to acid (ozolinon, $t_{1/2}$ 6–10 h), then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 44–59% pb 3–11% ur <2% | V 1.0–1.9 CL 11–17 Mwt 242.2 PSA 84.0 Å ² log P –3.32 | MOLSIDOMINE Prodrug of nitrous oxide Metabolism: hydrolysis and decarboxylation of carbamate, then rearrangement to N-morpholino-N-nitrosoaminoacetonitrile |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–2.0 h F 84–93% pb <2% ur 50–60% | V – CL 6.9 Mwt 140.1 PSA 50.4 Å ² log P 0.71 | GABOXADOL Hypnotic Metabolism: O-glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5–9 h F 90% pb 96% ur 2% | V 1 CL 3 Mwt 375.6 PSA 97.0 Å ² log P 4.03 | TIAGABINE Antiepileptic Metabolism (CYP3A4): glucuronidation, thiophene oxidation to 2-thiophenone |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F – pb – ur – | V 0.35 CL – Mwt 248.3 PSA 142 Å ² log P –4.14 | NEGAMYCIN Antibacterial |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|---|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.6 h (iv) F – pb 83% ur 40% | V 0.28 CL 9.2 Mwt 193.2 PSA 66.4 Å ² log P 0.93 | BETAMIPRON Antibacterial adjunct (renal protection) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 26 h F – pb 80% ur 40–76% | V – CL – Mwt 244.3 PSA 104 Å ² log P 0.86 | BIOTIN Vitamin Metabolism: oxidation to sulfoxide, oxidative degradation of 4-carboxybutyl to 2-carboxyethyl (bisonbiotin) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h* F 10% pb 83% ur 20–30% (iv) | V 0.55 CL 3.1 Mwt 163.2 PSA 105 Å ² log P –0.70 | N-ACETYLCYSTEINE *iv: 5.5 h Mucolytic, high first-pass metabolism (N-deacetylation) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.2±0.5 h F 65% pb 30±6% ur 38±11% | V 0.8±0.2 CL 12.0±1.4 Mwt 217.3 PSA 96.4 Å ² log P 0.27 | CAPTOPRIL ACE inhibitor, antihypertensive Metabolism: oxidative disulfide formation, S-methylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 19–53 h F 63% pb – ur – | V 5±2 CL 2.6 Mwt 163.2 PSA 105 Å ² log P –0.67 | TIOPRONIN Antidote (heavy metals), mucolytic, hepatoprotectant Metabolite: mixed disulfide with cysteine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 h F – pb 65% ur – | V – CL 41 Mwt 249.3 PSA 134 Å ² log P –0.32 | ERDOSTEINE Active metabolites: N-acetylhomocysteine, homocysteine, hydrolyzed thiolactone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–9 h F – pb – ur 10–20% | V – CL 1.3 Mwt 200.3 PSA 72.2 Å ² log P 1.02 | VALROCEMIDE Anticonvulsant Metabolites: N-valproylglycine, valproic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–10 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 407.9 PSA 91.9 Å ² log P 3.35 | TERUTROBAN Antiplatelet agent, antithrombotic |

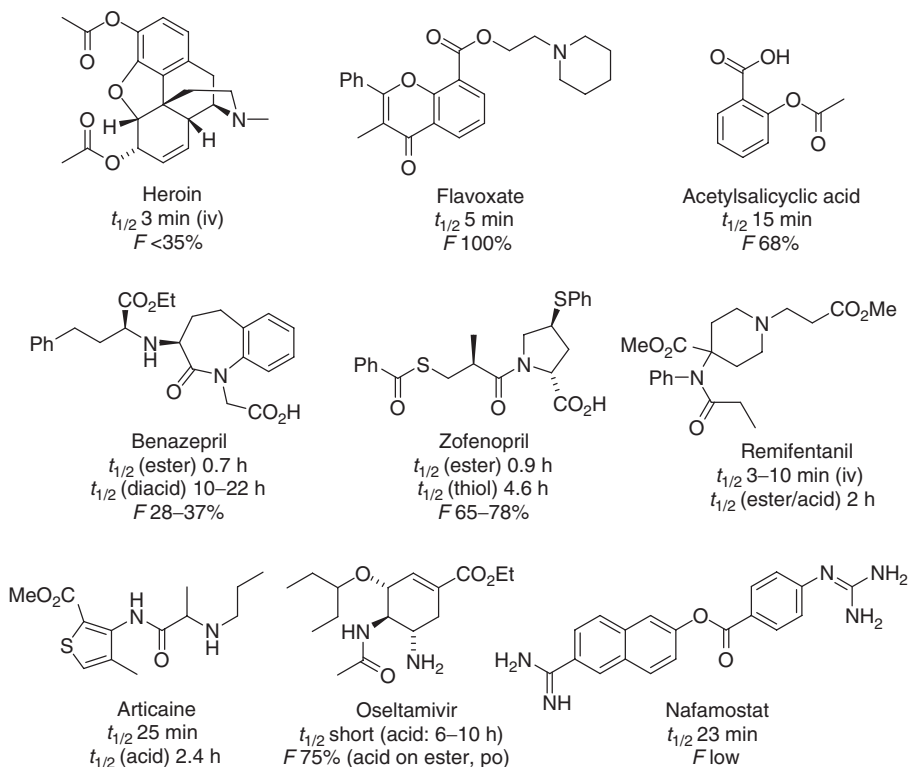
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|---|-----------|-----------|---------|----------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1–2 h | V | 0.3 (rat) | REBAMIPIDE |
| | F | 5% | CL | 21 ± 3 (rat) | Antilucerative |
| | pb | 98% | Mwt | 370.8 | Metabolism: 8-hydroxylation |
| | ur | 10% | PSA | 95.5 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log P | 2.56 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.4–2.9 h | V | 0.13 | NATEGLINIDE |
| | F | 72% | CL | 1.5–2.0 | Antidiabetic |
| | Pb | 97% | Mwt | 317.4 | Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation, |
| | ur | 13–16% | PSA | 66.4 \AA^2 | conversion of isopropyl group to |
| | | | log P | 2.35 | isopropenyl, 1-hydroxy-iPr, 2-hydroxy-iPr, and 1,2-dihydroxy-iPr |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 10–15 h | V | 0.23 | TOLRESTAT |
| | F | 68% (dog) | CL | 0.5 | Aldose reductase inhibitor for |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 357.4 | treatment of diabetic neuropathy |
| | ur | 30–40% | PSA | 81.9 \AA^2 | Metabolism: oxidation to S-oxide, |
| | | | log P | 3.59 | then to amide, O-demethylation, then O-sulfation; withdrawn in 1997 because of hepatotoxicity |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

32

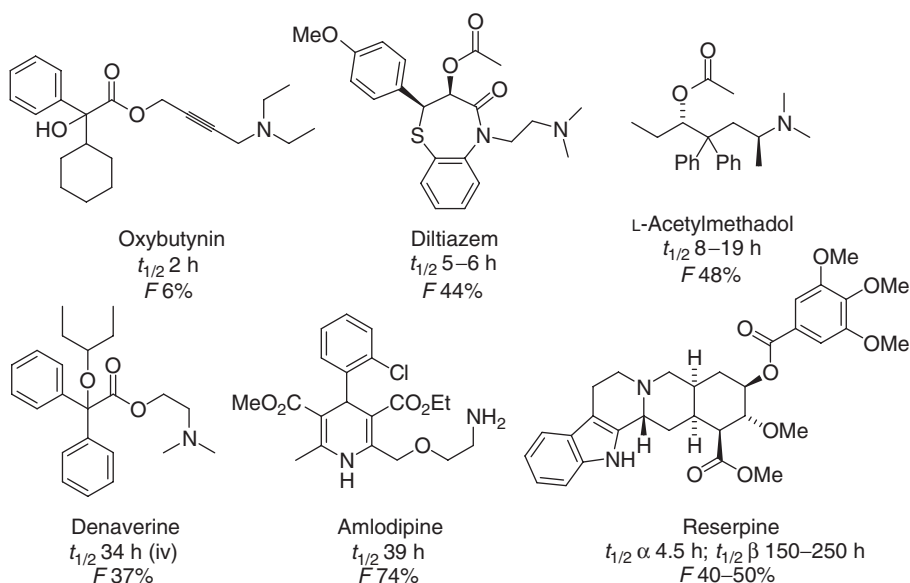
Carboxylic Esters

Because of their metabolic lability, carboxylic esters are often used as prodrugs for carboxylic acids, phenols, or alcohols. Esters are more lipophilic than carboxylic acids, and esters of hydrophilic acids will usually be absorbed more readily from the gastrointestinal tract than the parent acid. Ethyl or methyl esters, or acetic acid esters of primary aliphatic alcohols are usually hydrolyzed *in vivo* within minutes and can hardly be detected in plasma (Scheme 32.1).



Scheme 32.1 Carboxylic esters as drugs.

Some types of ester are, however, sufficiently stable to serve as drugs. Also, for topical or ophthalmic applications, where esterase activity is less intense, carboxylic esters can be sufficiently stable. Esters of tertiary alcohols or alcohols containing tertiary amines (e.g., denaverine) are particularly stable toward enzymatic hydrolysis. Similarly, esters with a carbonyl group in conjugation with electron-donating groups (e.g., vinylogous carbonates or carbamates, electron-rich arylcarboxylic or heteroarylcarboxylic esters), or esters of sterically crowded carboxylic acids, are resistant toward nucleophilic attack and less prone to hydrolysis *in vivo* [1] (Scheme 32.2).



Scheme 32.2 Metabolically resistant esters.

Lactones are chemically and enzymatically more labile than noncyclic esters because of the high-energy *cis* conformation of the alkoxycarbonyl group in lactones. However, five- and six-membered lactones will often be formed spontaneously from the corresponding hydroxy acids at neutral or slightly acidic pH. Accordingly, the metabolic hydrolysis of lactones is often reversible, for example, for the anti-inflammatory rofecoxib, for the statins, or for the tecans. β -Lactones are reactive acylating and alkylating agents that undergo irreversible ring opening.

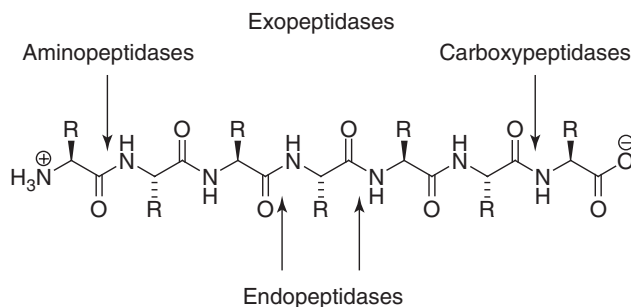
Reference

1. Buchwald, P. and Bodor, N. (1999) Quantitative structure–metabolism relationships: steric and nonsteric effects in the enzymatic hydrolysis of noncongener carboxylic esters. *J. Med. Chem.*, **42**, 5160–5168.

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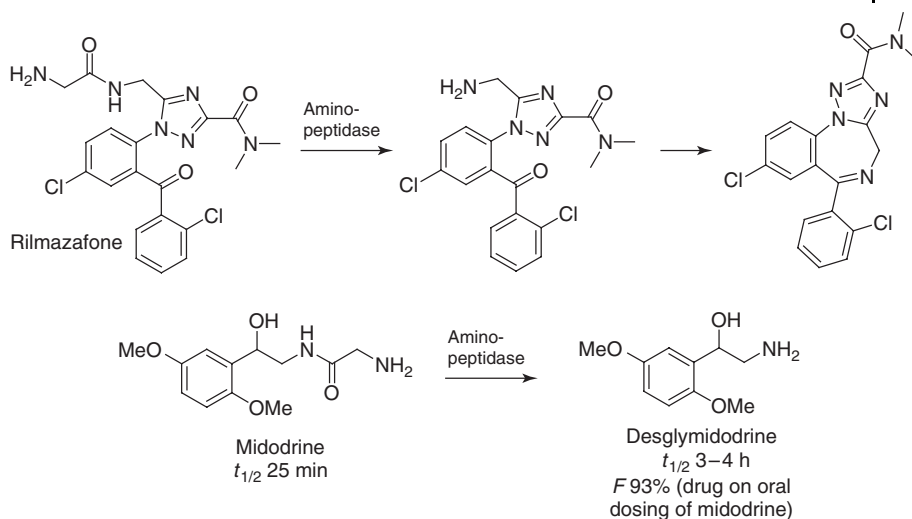
Amides

Amides are a ubiquitous functional group in living organisms (peptides, proteins). Most unnatural amides are sufficiently stable to serve as oral drugs, and only rarely quick enzymatic hydrolysis occurs (Table 33.1). Amides that are chemically reactive toward nucleophiles, such as those derived from highly electrophilic carboxylic acids (e.g., trifluoroacetamides), will also undergo fast metabolic hydrolysis *in vivo*. If an amide resembles the final or first amide bond in a peptide with a positive or negative charge close to the amide bond, quick hydrolysis by an aminopeptidase or carboxypeptidase may occur (Scheme 33.1). Similarly, endopeptidases may cleave uncharged peptidomimetics. Peptidases are, however, highly selective, and most unnatural amides will not be substrates of these enzymes. As in esters and carbamates, steric shielding will also inhibit the enzymatic hydrolysis of amides.



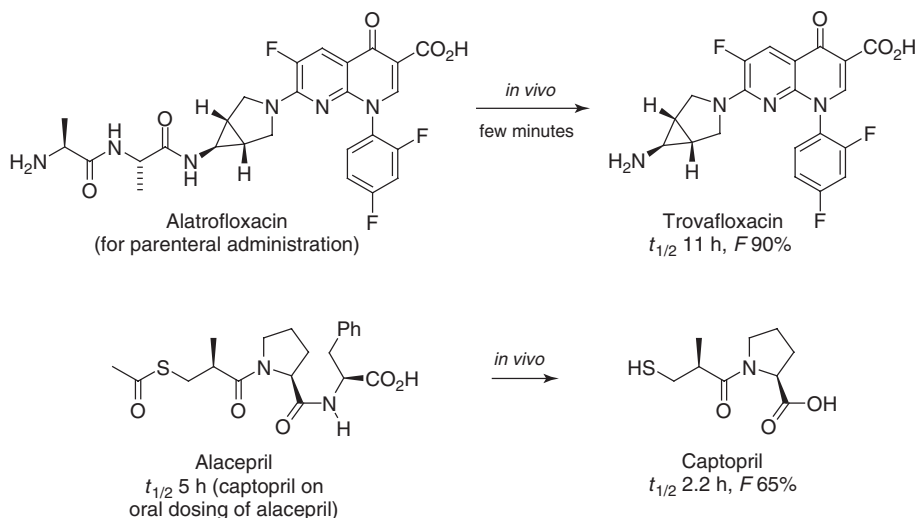
Scheme 33.1 Metabolism of peptides.

The absorption of highly insoluble amines or alcohols from the gastrointestinal tract can be enhanced by acylation with glycine. Aminopeptidases present in the epithelium of the intestine will rapidly deacylate the prodrug and regenerate the active compound, as exemplified by the benzodiazepine prodrug rilmazafone and the antihypotensive midodrine (Scheme 33.2).



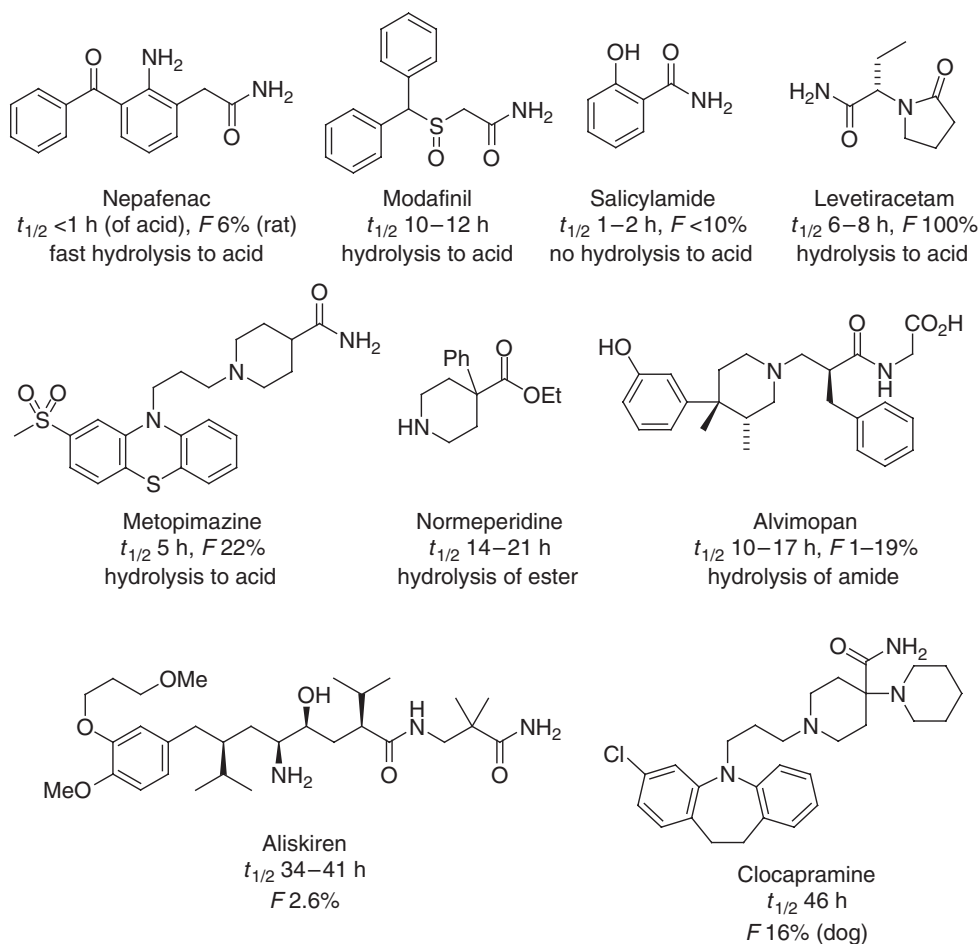
Scheme 33.2 Amides as prodrugs.

Acylation with glycine, alanine, or short peptides can be used to enhance solubility of a compound for a liquid, parenteral formulation (Scheme 33.3). A parenteral formulation may be useful even if the drug is orally bioavailable, for instance, if the drug is hepatotoxic or must be given to unconscious patients. Parenteral dosing also evades first-pass metabolism and CYP (cytochrome *P*450) induction or inhibition. Amide-based prodrugs can also be used as slow-release formulations of short-lived drugs.



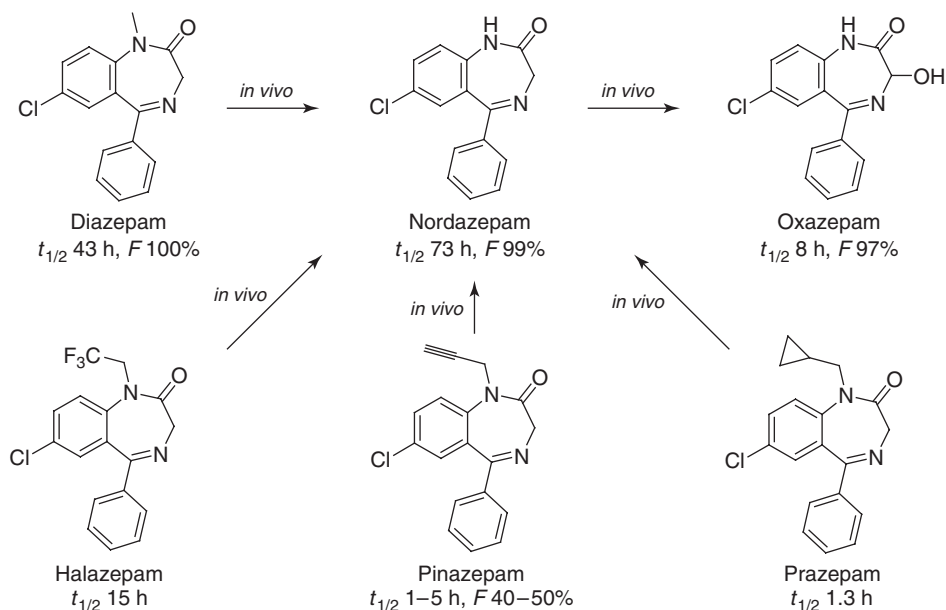
Scheme 33.3 Peptides as prodrugs.

The metabolic stability of N-unsubstituted amides (RCONH_2) is difficult to predict. Sterically accessible, lipophilic amides are often hydrolyzed quickly, whereas hydrophilic or sterically shielded amides will be more stable. Some of the amides sketched in Scheme 33.4 have low oral bioavailabilities and half-lives because of amide-bond hydrolysis, but some closely related amides and esters are not extensively hydrolyzed to carboxylic acids.



Scheme 33.4 N-Unsubstituted amides as drugs.

N-Alkylamides may be dealkylated via C-hydroxylation followed by hemiaminal hydrolysis, similar to the oxidative dealkylation of amines. This metabolic transformation is often observed in lactams, such as benzodiazepines (Scheme 33.5), and in cyclic imides and ureides (e.g., in barbiturates).

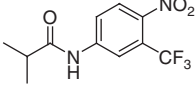
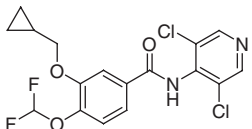
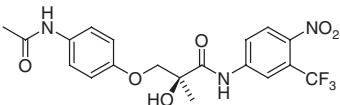
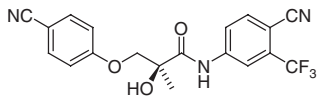
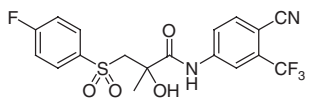
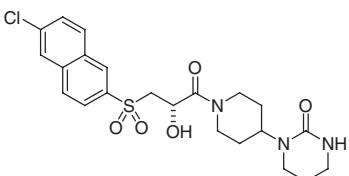


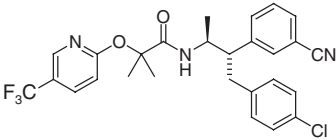
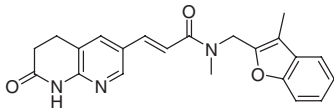
Scheme 33.5 N-Dealkylation of benzodiazepines.

Table 33.1 Amides. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | | | |
|--|-----------|------------|----------|----------------------|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.5 h | V | 2.1 | DEET, AUTAN |
| | F | 48%* | CL | – | *from dermal absorption |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 191.3 | Insect repellent |
| | ur | 10–14% | PSA | 20.3 \AA^2 | Metabolism: deethylation, |
| | | | $\log P$ | 2.42 | oxidation of CH_3 to CO_2H |
| | $t_{1/2}$ | 14 d* | V | 0.08–0.44* | LEFLUNOMIDE |
| | F | 82–94%* | CL | 0.007–0.012* | *teriflunomide (see below) |
| | pb | 99.4%* | Mwt | 270.2 | on oral dosing of |
| | ur | Negligible | PSA | 55.1 \AA^2 | leflunomide; antirheumatic, |
| | | | $\log P$ | 2.29 | immunomodulator; leflunomide is a prodrug of its active cyanoketone metabolite teriflunomide |
| | $t_{1/2}$ | 15–18 d | V | – | TERIFLUNOMIDE |
| | F | <40% | CL | – | Dihydroorotate |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 270.2 | dehydrogenase inhibitor, |
| | ur | – | PSA | 73.1 \AA^2 | agent for multiple |
| | | | $\log P$ | 1.52 | sclerosis; active metabolite of leflunomide |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|------------|--------------|---------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 4–22 h* | V | – | FLUTAMIDE |
| | F | – | CL | – | *2-hydroxyisopropyl |
| | pb | 94–96% | Mwt | 276.2 | metabolite; Nonsteroidal |
| | ur | Negligible | PSA | 74.9 Å ² | antiandrogen, prodrug of |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 3.52 | the active 2-hydroxy-isopropyl metabolite; |
| | | | | | Metabolism: single, twofold and threefold hydroxylation of isopropyl group, reduction of nitro to amino, hydrolysis of amide, aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 12–20 h | V | – | ROFLUMILAST |
| | F | 69–92% | CL | – | PDE4 inhibitor, |
| | pb | 99% | Mwt | 403.2 | bronchodilator |
| | ur | – | PSA | 60.5 Å ² | Metabolite: pyridine- <i>N</i> -oxide |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 2.31 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 4 h | V | 1.4* | ANDARINE |
| | F | 38–91%* | CL | 3–7* | *dog |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 441.4 | Selective androgen receptor |
| | ur | – | PSA | 105 Å ² | modulator |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 4.01 | Metabolism: amide hydrolysis (both), reduction of NO ₂ to NH ₂ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 4 h | V | – | OSTARINE |
| | F | – | CL | – | Selective androgen receptor |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 389.3 | modulator |
| | ur | – | PSA | 106 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 2.93 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2–16 d | V | 1.2–1.3 | BICALUTAMIDE |
| | F | 100% | CL | 0.8 | Antiandrogen, hormonal |
| | pb | 96% | Mwt | 430.4 | antineoplastic |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 116 Å ² | Metabolism: aromatic |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 4.94 | hydroxylation (ortho to F), glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 7 h* | V | 0.6 | TAK-442 |
| | F | 53%* | CL | 12 | *monkey |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 480.0 | Factor Xa inhibitor, |
| | ur | – | PSA | 115 Å ² | antithrombotic |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 2.77 | |

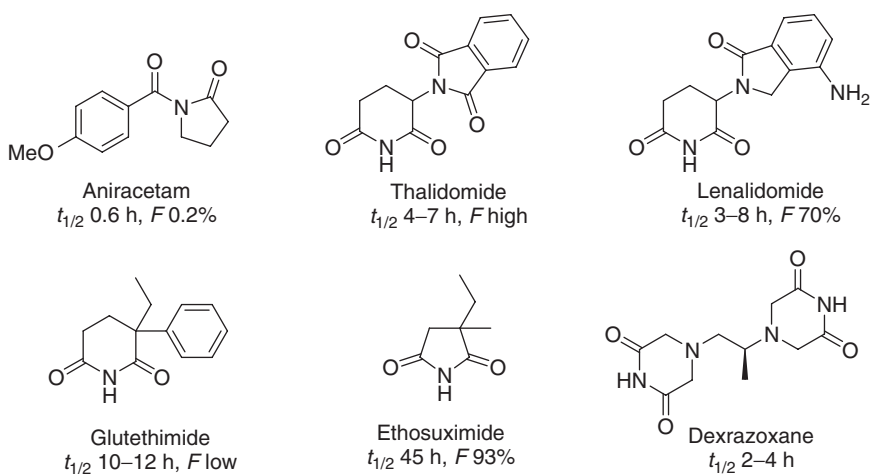
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3–4 d | V | 40 | TARANABANT |
| | <i>F</i> | 31%* | CL | 6.5 | *monkey |
| | pb | 100% | Mwt | 516.0 | Cannabinoid |
| | ur | Negligible | PSA | 75.0 Å ² | antagonist, antiobesity agent; Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation (at C ₃ CH) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 8–12 h | V | – | AFN-1252 |
| | <i>F</i> | 82% | CL | – | Bacterial fatty acid |
| | pb | 99% | Mwt | 375.4 | biosynthesis inhibitor |
| | ur | – | PSA | 74.9 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 0.85 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; *F*, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; PDE, phosphodiesterase.

34

Lactams and Imides

N-Unsubstituted imides are acidic (pK_a of phthalimide in H_2O : 8.30) but not enough to undergo extensive deprotonation under physiological conditions. Lactams are also more reactive than noncyclic amides because the *cis* conformation of the amide group in a lactam has higher energy than the *trans* conformer of an amide. Lactams and imides react with nucleophiles significantly faster than amides. Most imide-containing drugs are five- or six-membered cyclic imides (Table 34.1), which are more stable than open-chain imides (Scheme 34.1).



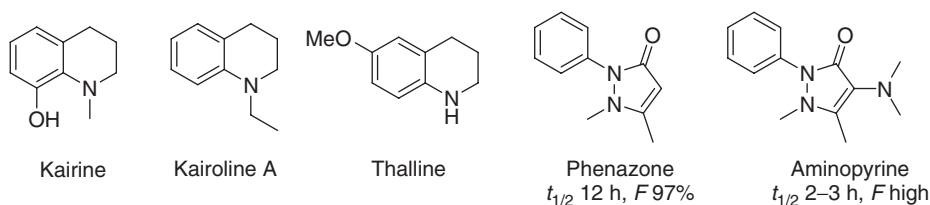
Scheme 34.1 Imides as drugs.

34.1

Pyrazolone Antipyretics

Wilhelm Koenigs and Otto Fischer, working at the University of Munich in the 1870s, believed that the antimalarial/antipyretic quinine had a tetrahydroquinoline substructure [1]. With the aim of discovering new antipyretic drugs, they prepared

some tetrahydroquinolines and gave them to Wilhelm Filehne at the University of Erlangen, who found that one of them, kairine, had indeed antipyretic properties (Scheme 34.2). The compound was launched by Hoechst 1881 but turned out to be too toxic. It was replaced by the antipyretics kairiline A and later by thalline, but these compounds still had a low therapeutic index.



Scheme 34.2 Older antipyretic agents.

In 1883, Ludwig Knorr, also at the University of Erlangen, attempted to prepare a new tetrahydroisochinoline by treating phenylhydrazine with an acetoacetate. The product turned out to be inactive in Filehnes assay, but he recommended to N-alkylate the compound because N-alkylation had reduced toxicity in kairine and kairolin. The resulting product, phenazone, turned out to be a potent and safe antipyretic. The correct pyrazolone structure was established by Knorr in 1887. This compound was marketed by Hoechst under the trade name antipyrine but was later renamed phenazone. It became the best-selling drug worldwide and even outsold sodium salicylate because it tasted better and did not cause gastric irritation. Phenazone can, however, cause agranulocytosis, a drug-induced, often irreversible depletion of neutrophilic granulocytes, which can be fatal. To improve potency and reduce toxicity, further analogs of phenazone were developed, such as aminopyrine, phenylbutazone, oxyphenbutazone, azapropazone, and sulfinpyrazone.

34.2

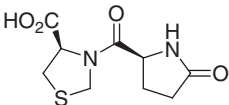
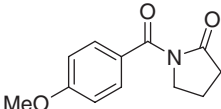
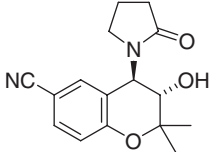
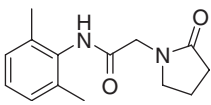
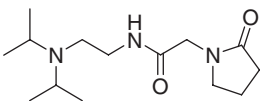
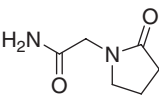
Five-Membered Lactams as Nootropics

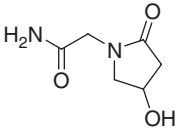
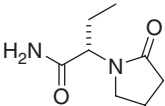
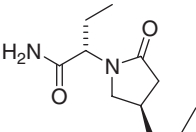
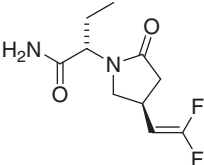
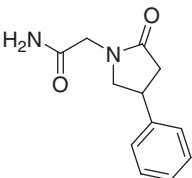
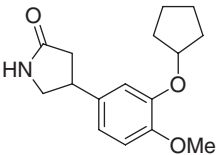
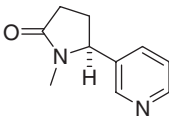
The first drugs for the treatment of epileptic seizures, bromide salts, were available as early as 1857. Later, phenobarbital and phenytoin and a number of other, more potent and selective antiepileptics were developed. In the early 1960s, various γ -butyrolactams were prepared as cyclic γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) analogs and tested in animal models, with the aim of discovering new sedatives. However, the compounds turned out to improve memory in rodents, and piracetam and other, related lactams, are used today to improve memory and cognitive function. In 1992, it was discovered at UCB that alkylated derivatives of piracetam had an anticonvulsant effect in mice, which led to the development of the γ -lactam antiepileptics levetiracetam and brivaracetam [2].

References

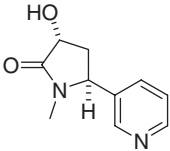
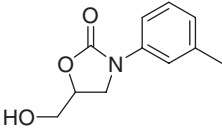
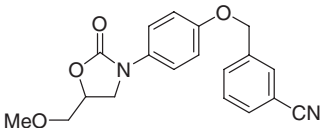
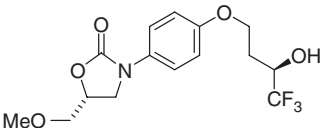
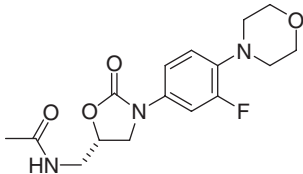
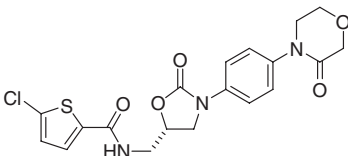
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2. Rogawski, M.A. (2008) Brivaracetam: a rational drug discovery success story. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*, **154**, 1555–1557.

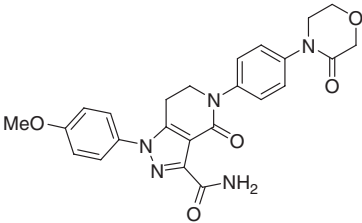
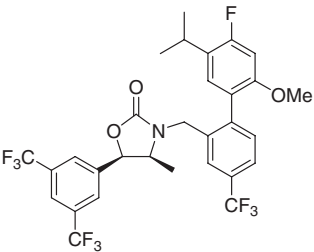
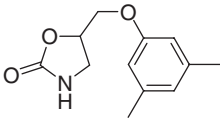
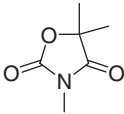
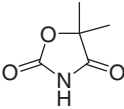
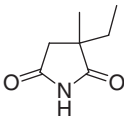
Table 34.1 Cyclic five-membered amides, carbamates, ureas, imides, and related compounds. V in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

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|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F 45% pb ur 82% | V 0.8 CL 2.7 Mwt 244.3 PSA 112 Å ² log P -2.38 | PIDOTIMOD Immunomodulator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.6 h F 0.2% pb - ur - | V 2–4 CL 141 Mwt 219.2 PSA 46.6 Å ² log P 1.35 | ANIRACETAM Nootropic Metabolites: <i>N</i> -(4-methoxybenzoyl)glycine, 4-methoxybenzoic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18–28 h F - pb - ur - | V - CL - Mwt 286.3 PSA 73.6 Å ² log P 1.27 | CROMAKALIM Potassium channel opener, antihypertensive; Metabolism: glucuronidation, oxidation and hydrolysis of pyrrolidone to succinamide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4±2 h F - pb - ur 5% | V 0.5–0.7 CL 1.5–2.2 Mwt 246.3 PSA 49.4 Å ² log P 0.64 | NEFIRACETAM Nootropic Metabolism: hydroxylation of pyrrolidone (mainly at position 5), then ring fission |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 h F - pb 30% ur - | V 2–3 CL 4–5 Mwt 269.4 PSA 52.7 Å ² log P -1.40 | PRAMIRACETAM Nootropic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5±1 h F 100% pb 0% ur 80–100% | V 0.6±0.1 CL - Mwt 142.2 PSA 63.4 Å ² log P -1.75 | PIRACETAM Nootropic No metabolism |

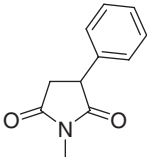
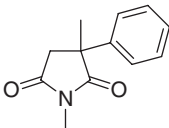
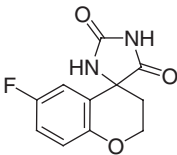
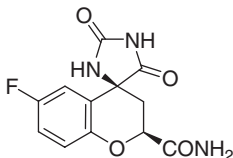
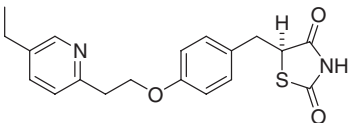
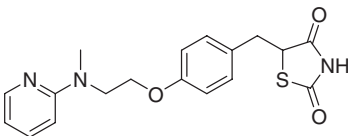
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–8 h F 75±7% pb – ur 50–84% | V 1–2 CL 1.8 Mwt 158.2 PSA 83.6 Å ² log P –2.48 | OXIRACETAM Nootropic Almost no metabolites formed in rats |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–8 h F 100% pb <10% ur 70% | V 0.6±0.1 CL 0.96 Mwt 170.2 PSA 63.4 Å ² log P –0.88 | LEVETIRACETAM Antiepileptic Metabolism: hydrolysis of CONH ₂ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±1 h F 100% pb 18% ur 5–9% | V 0.5 CL 0.8 Mwt 212.3 PSA 63.4 Å ² log P 0.88 | BRIVARACETAM Antiepileptic Metabolism: hydrolysis of CONH ₂ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8 h F >90% pb <10% ur 30% | V 0.6 CL – Mwt 232.2 PSA 63.4 Å ² log P 0.71 | SELETIRACETAM Anticonvulsant Metabolism: hydrolysis of CONH ₂ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F 100% pb – ur 40% | V – CL – Mwt 218.3 PSA 63.4 Å ² log P 0.70 | PHENYLPIRACETAM Nootropic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–8 h F 74% pb – ur Low | V 0.5 CL 2–6 Mwt 275.3 PSA 47.6 Å ² log P 2.00 | ROLIPRAM Antidepressant; Metabolism: O-dealkylation, 2- and 3-hydroxylation of cyclopentyl, 5-hydroxylation of pyrrolidinone; PK of both isomers is similar, only <i>R</i> (–) isomer is active |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–16 h F 84–100% pb – ur 12% | V 0.9 CL 0.9 Mwt 176.2 PSA 33.2 Å ² log P 0.08 | COTININE Metabolite of nicotine; Metabolism: N-methylation and oxidation of pyridine, hydroxylation of pyrrolidinone, demethylation, glucuronidation |

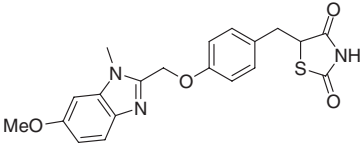
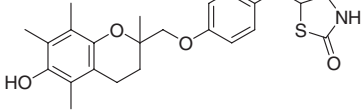
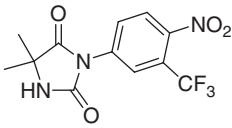
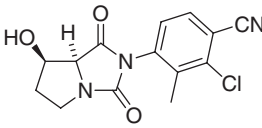
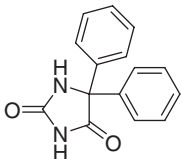
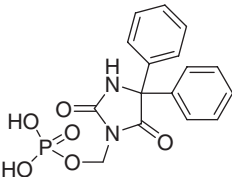
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–10 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 0.5–1.1 CL 1.1–2.6 Mwt 192.2 PSA 53.4 Å ² $\log P$ –1.12 | 3-HYDROXYCOTININE Metabolite of cotinine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9–2.5 h F 50–62% pb 51% ur <1% | V 1.1–1.6 CL 8–14 Mwt 207.2 PSA 49.8 Å ² $\log P$ 1.53 | TOLOXATONE Antidepressant, MAO inhibitor Metabolism: glucuronidation, oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–16 h F – pb 93–96% ur <1% | V 0.5–0.7 CL 0.4–0.8 Mwt 338.4 PSA 71.8 Å ² $\log P$ 2.25 | CIMOXATONE Antidepressant, MAO inhibitor Active metabolite: <i>O</i> -desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 36 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11–22 h F – pb 58% ur <0.2% | V – CL – Mwt 349.3 PSA 68.2 Å ² $\log P$ 1.91 | BEFLOXATONE Antidepressant, MAO inhibitor Active metabolite: <i>O</i> -desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 22 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–7 h F 80–100% pb 31% ur 30–40% | V 0.6–0.9 CL 1.6–2.2 Mwt 337.4 PSA 71.1 Å ² $\log P$ 0.45 | LINEZOLID Antibacterial Metabolism: oxidative ring opening of morpholine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–11 h F 80–100% pb 92–95% ur 36% | V 0.8 CL 2.6 Mwt 435.9 PSA 116 Å ² $\log P$ 1.84 | RIVAROXABAN Factor Xa inhibitor, antithrombotic Metabolism: oxidative degradation of morpholinone to <i>N</i> -(2-hydroxyethyl)oxalamide, amide hydrolysis |

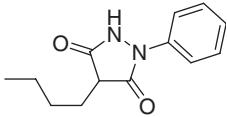
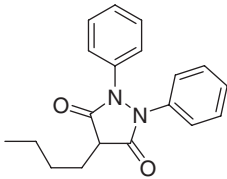
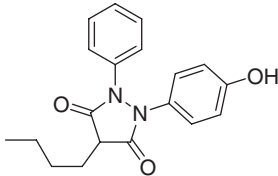
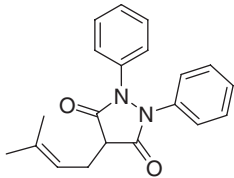
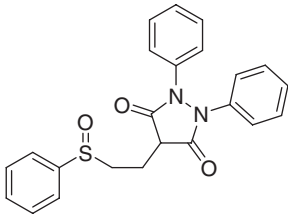
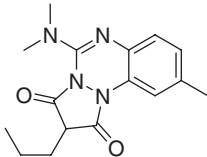
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–27 h F 51%* pb 87% ur 13% | V 0.17* CL 0.8–1.3 Mwt 459.5 PSA 111 Å ² $\log P$ 0.56 | APIXABAN *chimpanzee Anticoagulant, factor Xa inhibitor Metabolism: hydroxylation, O-demethylation, then O-sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–83 h F 13%* pb >99% ur <0.1% | V 0.31* CL 0.11* Mwt 637.5 PSA 38.8 Å ² $\log P$ 8.81 | ANACETRAPIB *monkey Cholesterol ester transfer protein inhibitor, antilipemic Metabolism: O-demethylation, hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±5 h F – pb – ur 27% | V/F 12.3 CL 17 Mwt 221.3 PSA 47.6 Å ² $\log P$ 1.18 | METAXALONE Muscle relaxant Metabolism: oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H, O-dealkylation to phenol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14±2 h F – pb 0% ur <3% | V 0.7±0.1 CL – Mwt 143.1 PSA 46.6 Å ² $\log P$ 0.79 | TRIMETHADIONE Anticonvulsant, teratogenic Metabolism: N-demethylation to dimethadione |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–13 d F – pb Low ur – | V 0.4–0.5 CL – Mwt 129.1 PSA 55.4 Å ² $\log P$ 0.77 | DIMETHADIONE Metabolite of trimethadione |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 45±8 h F 93±2% pb 0% ur 25±15% | V 0.7±0.2 CL/F 0.19±0.04 Mwt 141.2 PSA 46.2 Å ² $\log P$ 0.25 | ETHOSUXIMIDE Anticonvulsant Metabolism: hydroxylation at ethyl (both carbons) and CH ₂ CO |

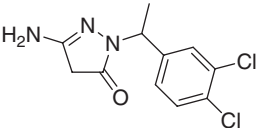
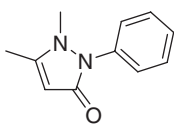
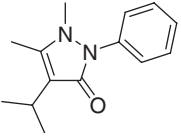
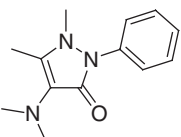
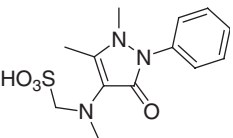
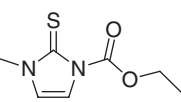
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7.8 h F – pb 21% ur Low | V – CL – Mwt 189.2 PSA 37.4 Å ² log P 0.04 | PHENSUXIMIDE Anticonvulsant Metabolism: N-demethylation, aromatic 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5±1.5 h F – pb Low ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 203.2 PSA 37.4 Å ² log P 0.42 | METHSUXIMIDE Anticonvulsant; active metabolite: <i>N</i> -desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 2–3 d; pb 50%) Further metabolism: aromatic and methyl hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 40–70 h F – pb – ur 26±7% | V 0.8 CL – Mwt 236.2 PSA 67.4 Å ² log P 0.49 | SORBINIL Aldose reductase inhibitor Metabolites: 2-hydroxy, 5-(2-hydroxyethyl)-5-(2-hydroxy- 5-fluorophenyl)- imidazolidinedione |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 279.2 PSA 111 Å ² log P –0.13 | FIDARESTAT Aldose reductase inhibitor, treatment of diabetic neuropathy |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–6 h F >80% pb >99% ur Low | V 0.25 CL – Mwt 356.4 PSA 93.6 Å ² log P 3.50 | PIOGLITAZONE PPAR-γ agonist, insulin sensitizer Metabolism: thiazolidinedione hydrolysis, benzylic hydroxylation of ethyl, then oxidation to ketone ($t_{1/2}$ 16–23 h); withdrawn in 2011 because of carcinogenicity |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.6–4.2 h F 86–100% pb 99.7% ur 0% | V 0.19 CL 0.6 Mwt 357.4 PSA 96.8 Å ² log P 2.56 | ROSIGLITAZONE PPAR-γ agonist, insulin sensitizer; Metabolism: N-demethylation, 3- and 5-hydroxylation of pyridine, then sulfation and glucuronidation; withdrawn in 2010 in Europe for increasing heart attack risk |


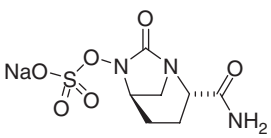
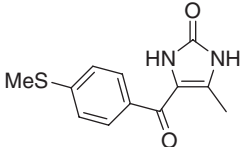
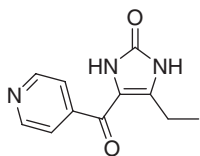
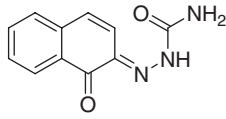
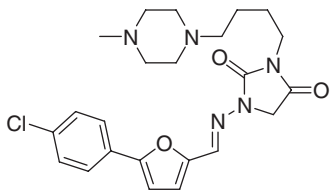
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–15 h F 76%* pb – ur 0.3%* | V 0.14–0.17* CL 0.31–0.37* Mwt 397.5 PSA 103 Å ² $\log P$ 2.95 | RIVOGLITAZONE *monkey; PPAR- γ agonist, insulin sensitizer Metabolism (monkey): O- and N-demethylation, thiazoline hydroxylation, thiazoline ring opening |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16–34 h F 40–50% pb >99% ur 0% | V 2.5 CL 8.5 Mwt 441.5 PSA 110 Å ² $\log P$ 4.69 | TROGLITAZONE PPAR- γ agonist Metabolism: O-sulfation, O-glucuronidation, oxidation to benzoquinone (chromane ring scission); withdrawn in 2000 because of hepatotoxicity |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 38–59 h F 80–90% pb 84% ur <2% | V – CL 2.5* Mwt 317.2 PSA 95.2 Å ² $\log P$ 3.35 | NILUTAMIDE *rat Antiandrogen, antineoplastic Metabolism: CH ₃ -hydroxylation, reduction of NO ₂ to NH ₂ , then aromatic hydroxylation (ortho to NH ₂), reduction of C=O to CHOH |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–14 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 305.7 PSA 84.6 Å ² $\log P$ 0.43 | BMS-564929 Selective androgen receptor modulator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15±9 h F 90±3% pb 89±23% ur 2±8% | V 0.64±0.04 CL – Mwt 252.3 PSA 58.2 Å ² $\log P$ 1.42 | PHENYTOIN Anticonvulsant CYP2C9 substrate, carcinogen Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation, then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–15 min F Low pb 95–99% ur – | V 0.07–0.17 CL – Mwt 362.3 PSA 126 Å ² $\log P$ –1.06 | FOSPHENYTOIN Prodrug of phenytoin |

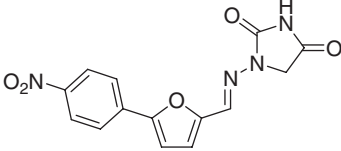
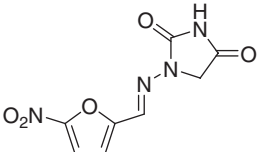
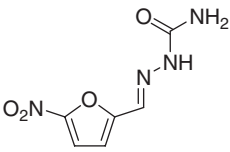
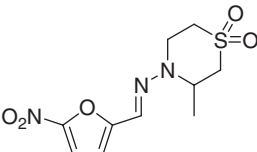
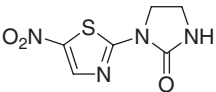
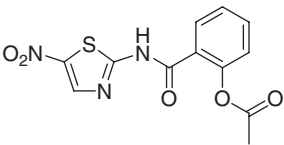
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| | | | |
|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.9 h (iv) F >90% pb 99% ur 8% | V – CL – Mwt 232.3 PSA 49.4 Å ² log P 2.26 | MOFEBUTAZONE Antiinflammatory Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 56±8 h F 90±10% pb 96±1% ur 1% | V 0.1 CL 0.02 Mwt 308.4 PSA 40.6 Å ² log P 3.38 | PHENYLBUTAZONE Antiinflammatory Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation (to oxyphenbutazone, see below), hydroxylation at CH_2CH_3 |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 27–64 h F – pb >98% ur <2% | V 0.15 CL 0.03 Mwt 324.4 PSA 60.9 Å ² log P 2.74 | OXYPHENBUTAZONE Active metabolite of phenylbutazone; withdrawn in 1985 for causing blood dyscrasias |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 22–33 h F – pb 90% ur <1% | V 0.3–0.5 CL 0.1–0.2 Mwt 320.4 PSA 40.6 Å ² log P 3.05 | FEPRAZONE Antiinflammatory Metabolism: hydroxylation of methyl and phenyl groups, C-glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4±1 h F 100% pb 98.3±0.5% ur 39±9% | V 0.74±0.23 CL 2.4±0.6 Mwt 404.5 PSA 76.9 Å ² log P 1.89 | SULFINPYRAZONE Antithrombotic, uricosuric Metabolism: oxidation to sulfone, reduction to sulfide ($t_{1/2}$ 14±5 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–24 h F 83±19% pb 99.5% ur 63% | V 0.15 CL 0.14 Mwt 300.4 PSA 56.2 Å ² log P 1.78 | AZAPROPAZONE, APAZONE Antiinflammatory Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–17 h F – pb 65% ur 5% | V 1 CL – Mwt 272.1 PSA 58.7 Å ² log P 2.10 | MUZOLIMINE Diuretic Metabolism: hydrolysis of amide, then decarboxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h (iv) F 97% pb 7% ur – | V 0.77 CL 0.64 Mwt 188.2 PSA 23.6 Å ² log P 0.44 | ANTIPYRINE, PHENAZONE Analgesic Metabolism: hydroxylation of vinylic methyl group |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0–1.5 h F – pb Low ur 0.6% | V 1.3–2.0 CL 11 Mwt 230.3 PSA 23.6 Å ² log P 1.72 | PROPYPHENAZONE Analgesic, antipyretic Metabolism: N-demethylation, hydroxylation of <i>i</i> Pr and phenyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.1–3.2 h F High pb 15% ur 3–10% | V 0.7 CL 2 Mwt 231.3 PSA 26.8 Å ² log P 0.85 | AMINOPYRINE, AMIDOPYRINE Analgesic, antipyretic Metabolism: N-demethylation of NMe ₂ , then N-acetylation and N-formylation; withdrawn in 1970 because of bone marrow suppression |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.6–3.5 h F 85%* pb 58% ur 2–4% | V – CL 2.8 Mwt 311.4 PSA 84.6 Å ² log P –1.50 | METAMIZOL, DIPYRONE *metabolites only Analgesic, antipyretic Metabolites: 4-(methylamino)antipyrine ($t_{1/2}$ 3.8 h), 4-(formylamino)antipyrine ($t_{1/2}$ 10 h), 4-aminoantipyrine ($t_{1/2}$ 4–6 h), 4-(acetylamino)antipyrine ($t_{1/2}$ 11 h); withdrawn in 1977 for causing agranulocytosis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–12 h* F – pb 40% ur 7% | V 0.5–0.9 CL 3.7 Mwt 186.2 PSA 64.9 Å ² log P 0.16 | CARBIMAZOLE *prodrug of methimazole (see below); all values: methimazole on oral dosing of carbimazole; antihyperthyroid; complete absorption |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–6 h F 95% pb – ur 7% | V 0.6–0.9 CL 1.4–3.7 Mwt 114.2 PSA 47.4 Å ² $\log P$ –0.34 | METHIMAZOLE, THIAMAZOLE Antihyperthyroid Metabolite: 3-methyl-2-thiohydantoin ($t_{1/2}$ 9 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 0.3–0.4 CL 2–3 Mwt 265.2 PSA 139 Å ² $\log P$ –1.87 | AVIBACTAM, NXL-104 β -Lactamase inhibitor, antibacterial |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 45–70% pb 70–85% ur 0.5% | V 1.8 CL 6.8–30 Mwt 248.3 PSA 83.5 Å ² $\log P$ 3.72 | ENOXIMONE Cardiotonic Metabolism: reversible oxidation to sulfoxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3 h F >80% pb 85% ur 64% | V 0.6–1.7 CL 7–9 Mwt 217.2 PSA 71.1 Å ² $\log P$ 2.15 | PIROXIMONE Inotropic Metabolism (dog): reduction of ketone to alcohol, oxidative cleavage to isonicotinic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5 h F High pb 0% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 215.2 PSA 84.6 Å ² $\log P$ 0.95 | NAFTAZONE Hemostatic, vasoprotectant Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–5 d F 85% pb 94% ur <10% | V 26 CL 2.5 Mwt 458.0 PSA 72.6 Å ² $\log P$ 3.33 | AZIMILIDE Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: oxidation to N-oxide, N-demethylation, hydrolysis of hydrazone and oxidation of CHO to CO ₂ H, N-dealkylation and oxidation to butanoic acid |

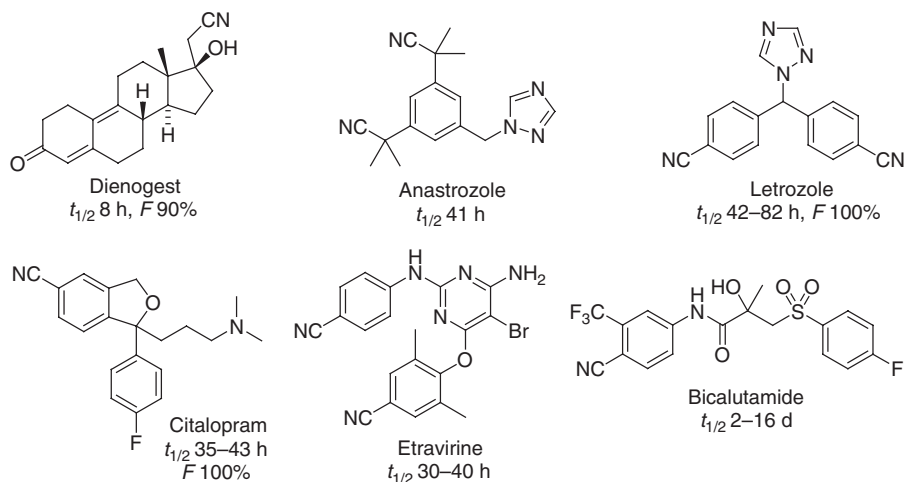
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9 h F 70–88% pb High ur 1–4% | V 0.54 CL – Mwt 314.3 PSA 121 Å ² log P 1.07 | DANTROLENE Muscle relaxant Metabolism: reduction of NO ₂ to NH ₂ , then N-acetylation, hydroxylation of CH ₂ N |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0±0.2 h F 90±13% pb 62±2% ur 47±13% | V 0.58±0.12 CL 9.9±0.9 Mwt 238.2 PSA 121 Å ² log P –0.47 | NITROFURANTOIN Antibacterial Metabolism: reduction of NO ₂ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h (cattle) F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 198.1 PSA 126 Å ² log P 0.47 | NITROFURAZONE Antibacterial Metabolism: reduction of NO ₂ ; withdrawn in 1974 because of carcinogenicity |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3±1 h F Low pb – ur <1% | V 12 CL – Mwt 287.3 PSA 117 Å ² log P 0.73 | NIFURTIMOX Antibacterial Metabolite: nitrite |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–15 h F – pb – ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 214.2 PSA 119 Å ² log P 0.95 | NIRIDAZOLE Anthelmintic Metabolism: hydroxylation, oxidation to 4-ketoniridazole, hydrolysis of nitrothiazole to 1-thiocarbamoyl-2-imidazolidinone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6 min* F High* pb >99%* ur – | V 30* CLF 1.3–2.2* Mwt 307.3 PSA 142 Å ² log P 2.74 | NITAZOXANIDE *tizoxanide on oral administration of prodrug Prodrug of tizoxanide ($t_{1/2}$ 1.8 h); antiprotozoal Metabolism: deacetylation to tizoxanide, then glucuronidation |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; MAO, monoamine oxidase; PPAR, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor.

35

Nitriles

The cyano group is strongly electron-withdrawing and may be used to lower the electron density of an arene or heteroarene, to reduce the basicity of amines, or to enhance the polar surface area and solubility of a lead. Nitriles are metabolically quite stable, as shown by the examples in Scheme 35.1 [1].



Scheme 35.1 Therapeutic nitriles.

The *N*-cyanoguanidine group has been used as nontoxic thiourea bioisostere in cimetidine. The potassium channel opener pinacidil also contains a cyanoguanidine substructure.

In principle, nitriles may be hydrolyzed *in vivo* to amides or carboxylic acids, but such metabolites are rarely observed. Interestingly, simple nitriles such as RCH_2CN or R_2CHCN (R = alkyl; not *tert*-butyl cyanide) undergo displacement and release of cyanide in rats [2]. If this metabolic transformation also occurs in humans, this would be a problem only in compounds that must be dosed in large quantities. Small amounts of cyanide are goitrogenic (cyanide is metabolized

to thiocyanate, which interferes with the iodination step during thyroid hormone biosynthesis), but do not otherwise cause irreversible damage on chronic, sublethal dosing.

References

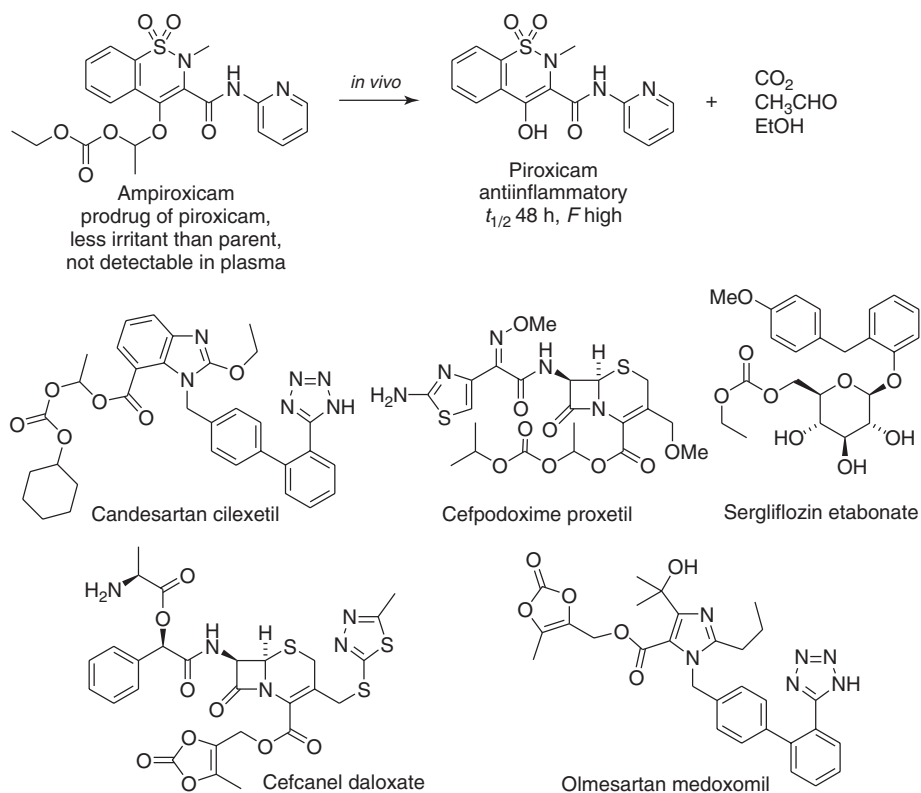
1. Fleming, F.F., Yao, L., Ravikumar, P.C., Funk, L., and Shook, B.C. (2010) Nitrile-containing pharmaceuticals: efficacious roles of the nitrile pharmacophore. *J. Med. Chem.*, **53**, 7902–7917.
2. (a) Silver, E.H., Kuttub, S.H., Hasan, T., and Hassan, M. (1982) Structural considerations in the metabolism of nitriles to cyanide in vivo. *Drug Metabol. Dispos.*, **10**, 495–498;
(b) Dahl, A.R. and Waruszewski, B.A. (1989) Metabolism of organonitriles to cyanide by rat nasal tissue enzymes. *Xenobiotica*, **19**, 1201–1205.

36

Carbonates

Carbonates have often been used as prodrugs, but rarely as a structural element of drugs. Carbonates are chemically more stable than esters, but this seems not to be the case *in vivo*. One problem may be that effective steric shielding of the carbonyl group in carbonates is more difficult than in esters.

Examples of typical carbonate-based prodrugs for carboxylic acids or phenols are sketched in Scheme 36.1.



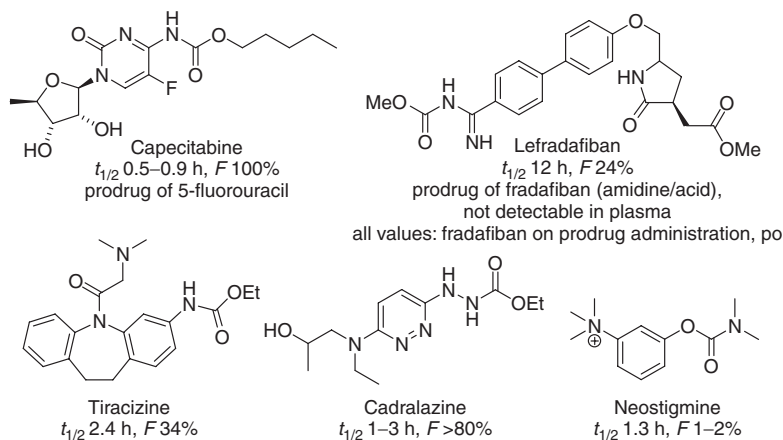
Scheme 36.1 Carbonate prodrugs.

37

Carbamates

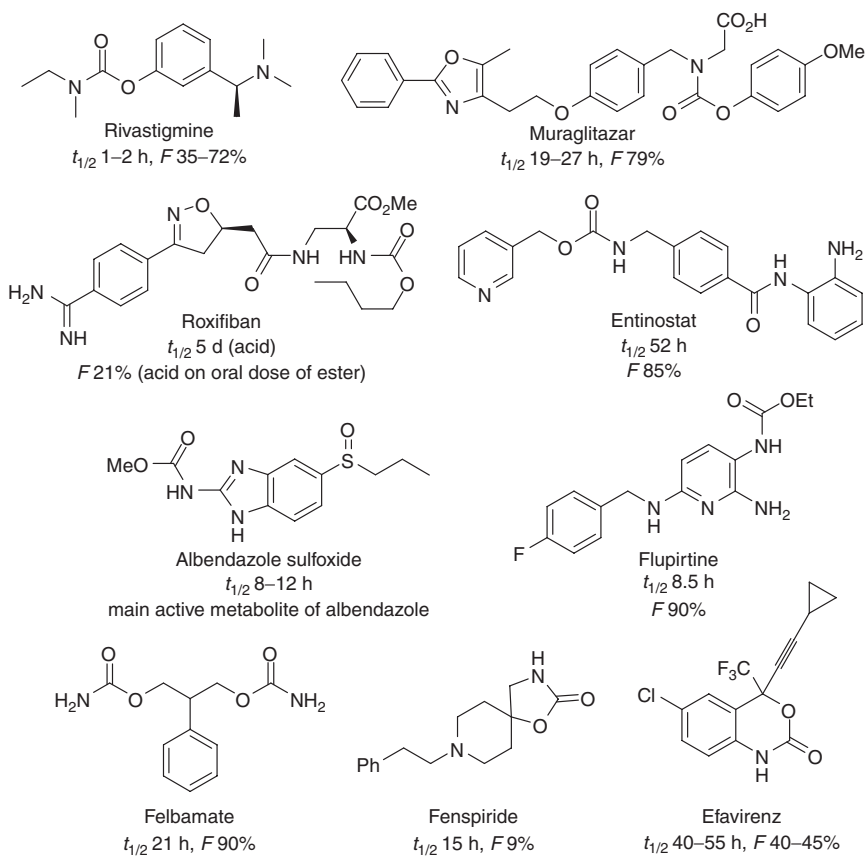
The resistance of carbamates toward nucleophilic attack lies between that of carboxylic esters and amides. Carbamates of primary amines ($\text{RNHCO}_2\text{R}'$) can also fragment into isocyanates and alcohols on treatment with bases, a further potential pathway of metabolic degradation.

Short-lived carbamates have been used as prodrugs of heteroaromatic amines (capecitabine), amidines (lefradafiban, dabigatran), and phenols (bambuterol). Examples of such compounds and other short-lived carbamates, in which carbamate hydrolysis is the main metabolic pathway, are shown in Scheme 37.1.



Scheme 37.1 Carbamates as prodrugs or short-acting drugs.

Sterically undemanding carbamates derived from nonbasic amines (anilines, heteroaryl amines), hydrazines, and amidines are less stable than those derived from ammonia or aliphatic amines. The latter can be sufficiently long lived to serve as oral drugs, as illustrated by the examples in Scheme 37.2. Cyclic five- or six-membered carbamates are quite stable and do not usually undergo metabolic ring opening. In the examples in Scheme 37.2, carbamate hydrolysis is *not* necessarily the half-life-determining metabolic reaction.



Scheme 37.2 Therapeutic carbamates.

37.1

Carbamates as Hypnotics

The first substances known to induce sleep were bromide and ethanol. In 1869, Oscar Liebreich discovered the hypnotic properties of chloral (trichloroacetaldehyde) that became widely used for this purpose. Because of the foul taste and irritating effect on the stomach, alternatives were sought, and Josef von Mering and Oswald Schmiedeberg at the University of Strasbourg discovered ethyl carbamate (urethane) as a weak, nonirritating hypnotic. The hypothesis behind their discovery was that urethane would be decomposed in the body to ethanol and the respiratory stimulants carbon dioxide and ammonia, what should provide for a safe hypnotic. It turned out, however, that intact ethyl carbamate was the hypnotic agent.

Further structural variations and combinations of low-molecular-weight alcohols, aldehydes, carbamates, ureas, and cyclic imides led to increasingly potent

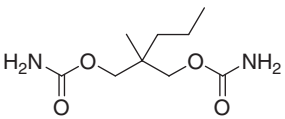
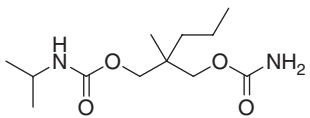
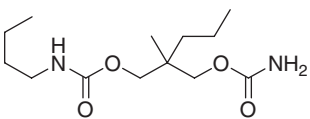
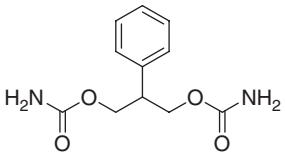
hypnotics and anticonvulsants, such as the acylureas, barbiturates, glutarimides, succinimides, hydantoins, and quinazolones (Tables 34.1, 37.1, and 38.1) [1].

A particularly tragic event was the launch of racemic thalidomide (Contergan) as sedative by the German company Grünenthal in 1957. Hardly any clinical trials had been performed before commercialization. Thalidomide causes peripheral neuritis, and it is also strongly teratogenic. Until its withdrawal in 1961, more than 1000 babies with horrible malformations, typically shortened or absent long bones of arms and legs (phocomelia), were born in Germany and Australia. The thalidomide disaster shattered confidence in the pharmaceutical industry and led to much stricter regulations and to a significant improvement of the quality of new drugs [2].

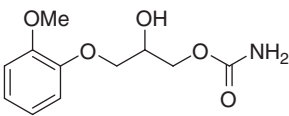
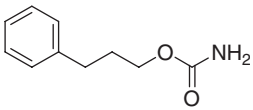
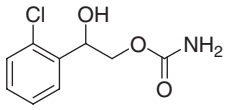
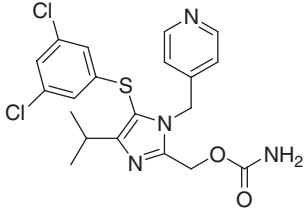
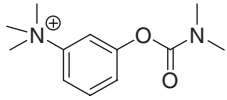
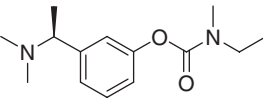
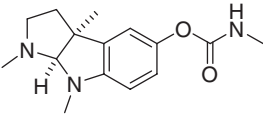
References

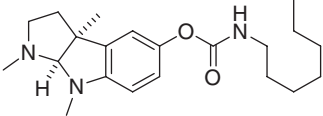
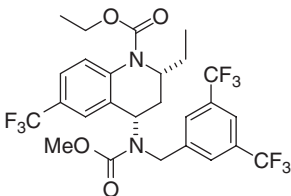
1. (a) Sneader, W. (1997) Anticonvulsants. *Drug News Perspect.*, **10**, 156–160; (b) Sneader, W. (1993) Hypnotics. *Drug News Perspect.*, **6**, 182–186.
2. Botting, J. (2002) The history of thalidomide. *Drug News Perspect.*, **15**, 604–611.

Table 37.1 Noncyclic carbamates. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–11 h F – pb 15% ur 8–20% | V 0.75 CL 2–3 Mwt 218.3 PSA 105 Å ² $\log P$ 0.70 | MEPROBAMATE Anxiolytic Metabolism: hydroxylation to 2-hydroxypropyl metabolite |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8 h F – pb 58% ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 260.3 PSA 90.7 Å ² $\log P$ 2.10 | CARISOPRODOL Muscle relaxant Metabolism: hydroxylation, N-deisopropylation to meprobamate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 h F – pb 77% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 274.4 PSA 90.7 Å ² $\log P$ 2.76 | TYBAMATE Anxiolytic Metabolism (rat, dog): propyl 2-hydroxylation, N-debutylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 21±2 h F >90% pb 22–25% ur 45±5% | V/F 0.76±0.08 CL/F 0.50±0.13 Mwt 238.2 PSA 105 Å ² $\log P$ 0.73 | FELBAMATE Anticonvulsant; Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation, hydrolysis of carbamoyl, then oxidation to aldehyde, then elimination to α,β -unsaturated aldehyde; hepatotoxic |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9–2.0 h F 32% pb 46–50% ur 10–15% | V – CL 3–13 Mwt 241.2 PSA 91.0 Å ² log P 0.40 | METHOCARBAMOL Muscle relaxant Metabolism: O-demethylation, aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–8 h F – pb 81% ur 7% | V – CL – Mwt 179.2 PSA 52.3 Å ² log P 1.93 | PHENPROBAMATE Anxiolytic, muscle relaxant Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, oxidative degradation of carbamate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–14 h F 94% pb <60% ur <5% | V 1 CL 0.7–1.0 Mwt 215.6 PSA 72.6 Å ² log P 1.38 | CARISBAMATE Antiepileptic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F Good pb – ur Negligible | V 4.5 CL – Mwt 451.4 PSA 108 Å ² log P 4.20 | CAPRAVIRINE Antiviral (discontinued) Metabolites: pyridine- <i>N</i> -oxide, sulfoxide, sulfone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3±0.8 h F 10–20% pb Negligible ur 67% | V 0.7±0.3 CL 8.4±2.7 Mwt 223.3 PSA 29.5 Å ² log P –2.34 | NEOSTIGMINE Cholinergic, miotic, antidote for neuromuscular blocking agents (e.g., curare); Metabolism: hydrolysis of carbamate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 35–72% pb 40% ur 0% | V 0.7–3.2 CL 5.2–20 Mwt 250.3 PSA 32.8 Å ² log P 2.14 | RIVASTIGMINE Nootropic, crosses bbb Metabolism: hydrolysis of carbamate, N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5 h F 3%* pb 30–40% ur <4% | V 1–2 CL 22–190 Mwt 275.4 PSA 44.8 Å ² log P 1.27 | PHYSOSTIGMINE *36% (transdermal) Cholinergic, miotic, crosses bbb |

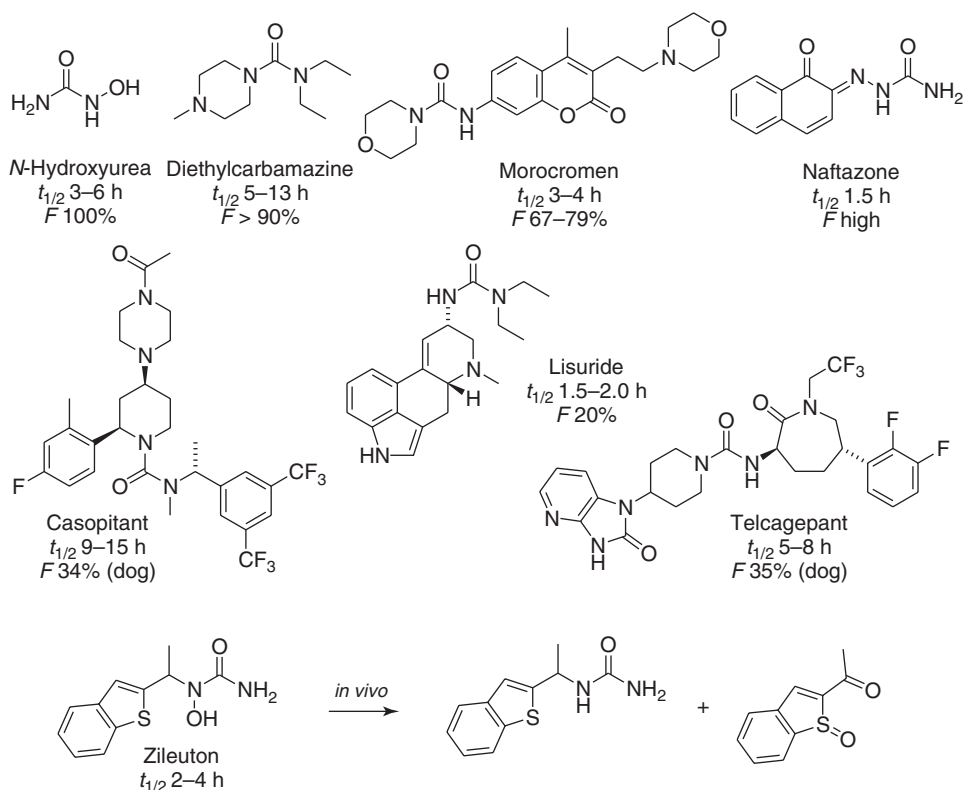
| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|---------|-------|---------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 12 h | V | 1.1 | EPTASTIGMINE Cholinergic |
| | F | — | CL | 12 | |
| | pb | — | Mwt | 359.5 | |
| | ur | — | PSA | 44.8 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 4.41 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 211 h | V | 1.1–2.5* | TORCETRAPIB *rat, monkey CETP inhibitor for treatment of atherosclerosis; development discontinued |
| | F | 33–45%* | CL | 6–12* | |
| | pb | — | Mwt | 600.5 | |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 59.1 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 8.16 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier; CETP, cholesteryl ester transfer protein.

38

Ureas

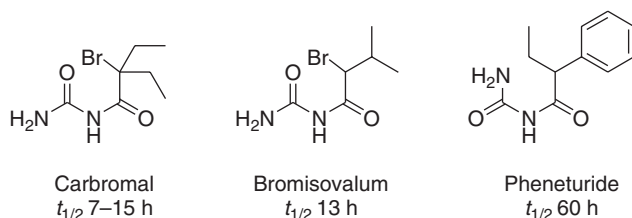
Acyclic ureas are similarly stable as amides toward enzymatic hydrolysis but have been used less frequently in drug design. Illustrative examples are shown in Scheme 38.1. The most important drugs with a urea substructure are *N*-nitroso-*N*-(2-chloroethyl)ureas (Chapter 12), *N*-sulfonylureas (Chapter 64), and barbiturates.



Scheme 38.1 Therapeutic ureas.

The parent, unsubstituted urea is used as osmotic diuretic. It must be dosed intravenously because its oral bioavailability is too low. The antineoplastic hydroxyurea, however, is readily absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract and even crosses the blood–brain barrier (bbb). *N*-Hydroxyureas may undergo metabolic N–O bond cleavage, as shown below for the antiasthmatic zileuton.

Among the first hypnotics were *N*-acylureas such as carbromal, bromisovalum, and pheneturide (Scheme 38.2), but no complete pharmacokinetics (PK) profile was determined for these drugs. Noncyclic acylureas are less potent than barbiturates, and are no longer used as hypnotics.



Scheme 38.2 Older hypnotic ureas.

After discovering the weak hypnotic ethylcarbamate, Josef von Mering, working at the University of Strasbourg, continued to prepare carbamates and ureas with the aim of finding better hypnotics. After discovering the potent hypnotic *N*-(2-ethylbutanoyl)urea, he decided to prepare cyclic *N*-acylureas. One of these was 5,5-diethylbarbituric acid (barbital). Because he had doubts about the real structure of his product, he asked his friend Emil Fischer for help. Fischer together with his nephew Alfred Dilthey resynthesized the compound, and it turned out to be the most potent hypnotic ever seen. It was marketed by Bayer as Veronal in 1903 [1].

Hypnotics such as ethanol and barbiturates act by suppressing polysynaptic responses in the central nervous system (CNS), by interacting with various γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptors, and by inhibiting glutamate-activated ion currents, without binding specifically to any receptor. Interestingly, despite their large polar surface area (PSA), barbiturates and related hypnotics are able to cross the bbb and enter the CNS.

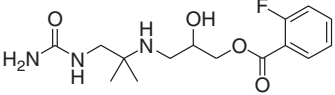
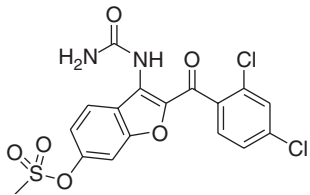
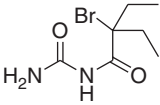
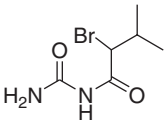
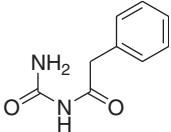
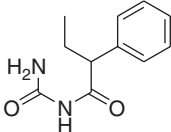
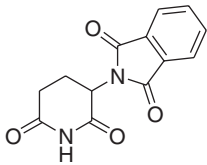
Barbiturates are more potent and show fewer side effects than the older hypnotics chloral, paraldehyde, sulfonal, or the simple aliphatic carbamates hedonal or ethyl carbamate. Barbiturates were extensively used for many years as sedatives, hypnotics, anticonvulsants, and anesthetics (Table 38.1). From the 1960s, however, barbiturates have been largely displaced by benzodiazepines, which have a higher therapeutic index and a lower liability for drug–drug interactions, tolerance, and abuse.

Reference

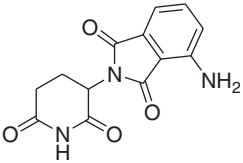
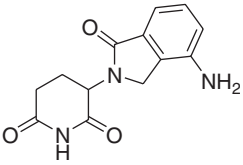
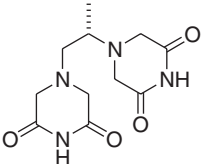
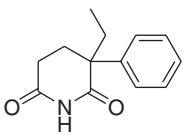
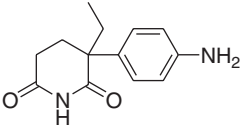
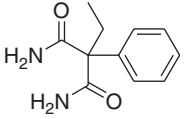
1. Sneader, W. (1993) Hypnotics. *Drug News Perspect.*, 6, 182–186.

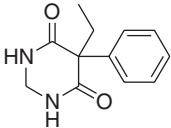
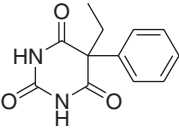
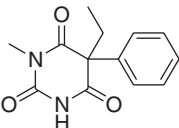
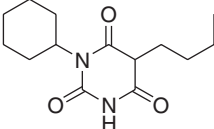
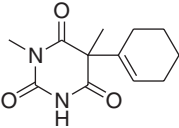
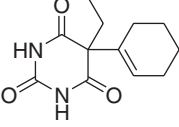
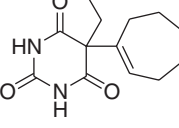
Table 38.1 Thioamides, thioureas, and six-membered lactams, imides, and ureas (barbiturates). *V* in l kg⁻¹; *CL* in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; *Mwt* in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|--|-------------------------|------------|--------------|---------------------|--|
| | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 1 h | <i>V</i> | 0.7 | ELESCLOMOL |
| | <i>F</i> | – | <i>CL</i> | 13 | Apoptosis inducer, inducer of oxidative stress, HSP70 |
| | <i>pb</i> | – | <i>Mwt</i> | 400.5 | inducer, oncolytic |
| | <i>ur</i> | – | <i>PSA</i> | 129 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | 1.98 | |
| | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 60–120 h | <i>V</i> | – | DISULFIRAM |
| | <i>F</i> | >80% | <i>CL</i> | 9–12 | Aldehyde dehydrogenase inhibitor for treatment of alcoholism; crosses bbb; |
| | <i>pb</i> | 96% | <i>Mwt</i> | 296.5 | CYP2E1 inhibitor, hepatotoxic |
| | <i>ur</i> | – | <i>PSA</i> | 121 Å ² | Active metabolite: diethylthiomethylcarbamate (Et ₂ NCO(SCH ₃)) |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | 3.82 | |
| | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 3 h | <i>V</i> | – | AMOCARZINE |
| | <i>F</i> | <40% | <i>CL</i> | – | Anthelmintic |
| | <i>pb</i> | – | <i>Mwt</i> | 371.5 | Metabolism: N-oxidation |
| | <i>ur</i> | 1.5% | <i>PSA</i> | 108 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | 2.32 | |
| | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 5–13 h | <i>V</i> | 1.7–5.7 | DIETHYLCARBAMAZINE |
| | <i>F</i> | >90% | <i>CL</i> | – | Anthelmintic |
| | <i>pb</i> | Negligible | <i>Mwt</i> | 199.3 | Metabolite: <i>N</i> -oxide |
| | <i>ur</i> | 50% | <i>PSA</i> | 26.8 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | 1.66 | |
| | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 3–6 h | <i>V</i> | 0.52 | HYDROXYUREA |
| | <i>F</i> | 100% | <i>CL</i> | 1.5 | Antineoplastic, crosses bbb |
| | <i>pb</i> | 0% | <i>Mwt</i> | 76.1 | |
| | <i>ur</i> | 80% | <i>PSA</i> | 75.3 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | –1.80 | |
| | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 1.8–3.9 h | <i>V</i> | 0.9–2.7 | ZILEUTON |
| | <i>F</i> | – | <i>CL</i> | 7.8–9.6 | Antiasthmatic, antiinflammatory, |
| | <i>pb</i> | 94% | <i>Mwt</i> | 236.3 | 5-lipoxygenase inhibitor |
| | <i>ur</i> | Negligible | <i>PSA</i> | 94.8 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | 3.74 | |
| | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 15–18 h | <i>V</i> | 70–79 | ABT-761 |
| | <i>F</i> | High | <i>CL</i> | – | 5-Lipoxygenase inhibitor |
| | <i>pb</i> | 99% | <i>Mwt</i> | 318.4 | Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation, reductive cleavage of N–O bond |
| | <i>ur</i> | <0.05% | <i>PSA</i> | 94.8 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | 4.56 | |

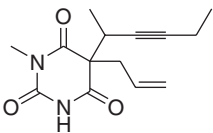
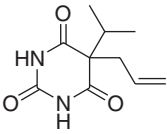
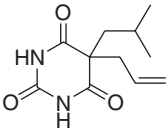
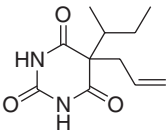
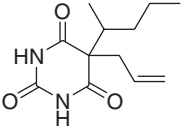
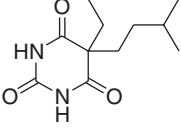
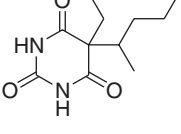
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1–7 min* | V | – | FLESTOLOL |
| | F | – | CL | 154–260* | *iv |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 327.4 | β -Adrenoceptor antagonist |
| | ur | – | PSA | 114 Å ² | Metabolism: ester hydrolysis |
| | | | log P | 0.91 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 25 h | V | – | LIRIMILAST |
| | F | – | CL | – | PDE ₄ inhibitor |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 443.3 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 137 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.93 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 7–15 h | V | – | CARBROMAL |
| | F | – | CL | 0.15 | Sedative, hypnotic |
| | pb | 40% | Mwt | 237.1 | Metabolism: hydrolysis of urea |
| | ur | – | PSA | 72.2 Å ² | to 2-bromo-2-ethylbutyramide, |
| | | | log P | 1.62 | reductive debromination |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 13 h | V | – | BROMISOVALUM |
| | F | – | CL | 0.14 (R)* | *S: 0.012; Sedative, hypnotic |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 223.1 | Metabolism: reductive |
| | ur | – | PSA | 72.2 Å ² | debromination, S-alkylation of |
| | | | log P | 1.06 | cysteine and of N-acetylcysteine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 22–25 h | V | – | PHENACEMIDE |
| | F | – | CL | – | Antiepileptic |
| | pb | 24% | Mwt | 178.2 | Metabolism: aromatic |
| | ur | Low | PSA | 72.2 Å ² | 4-hydroxylation |
| | | | log P | 0.87 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 60±30 h | V | 3.3 | PHENETURIDE |
| | F | – | CL | 0.68±0.24 | Anticonvulsant |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 206.2 | Metabolism: aromatic |
| | ur | Low | PSA | 72.2 Å ² | 4-hydroxylation, hydrolysis of |
| | | | log P | 1.73 | ureide to 2-phenylbutyric acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 4.1–7.3 h | V | 1 | THALIDOMIDE |
| | F | High | CL | 2.4 (R)** | *S: 66%; **S: 5.0 |
| | pb | 55% (R)* | Mwt | 258.2 | Sedative; Metabolism: |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 83.6 Å ² | hydrolysis of both imides, |
| | | | log P | 0.33 | aromatic 4-hydroxylation, |

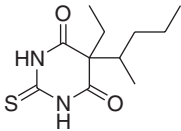
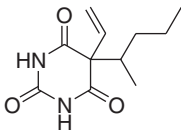
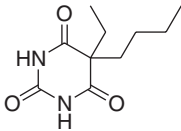
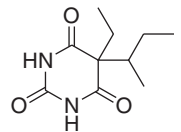
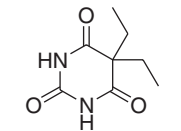
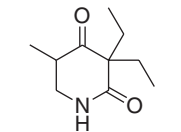
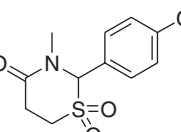
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|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 273.2 PSA 110 \AA^2 $\log P$ -0.71 | POMALIDOMIDE Immunomodulator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–8 h F 70% pb 19–29% ur 65% | V 1.2 CL 4.6 Mwt 259.3 PSA 92.5 \AA^2 $\log P$ -1.09 | LENALIDOMIDE Antineoplastic Metabolism: N-acetylation, hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h F – pb <2% ur 46% | V 0.6–1.1 CL 3.1–4.8 Mwt 268.3 PSA 98.8 \AA^2 $\log P$ -0.91 | DEXRAZOXANE Cardioprotectant (racemate: antineoplastic) Metabolism: hydrolysis of imide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–12 h F – pb 50% ur <2% | V 2.7 CL 2.3 Mwt 217.3 PSA 46.2 \AA^2 $\log P$ 1.75 | GLUTETHIMIDE Sedative, hypnotic Metabolites: glucuronides, 4-hydroxyphenyl, 4-hydroxy, 1-hydroxyethyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13 ± 2 h F >95% pb 20–25% ur 35–50% | V 0.8–1.1 CL 0.8–1.0 Mwt 232.3 PSA 72.2 \AA^2 $\log P$ 0.54 | AMINOGLUTETHIMIDE Anticonvulsant, inhibitor of cortisol biosynthesis Metabolism: acetylation and hydroxylation of NH_2 , hydroxylation of CH_2CO , 1-hydroxylation of ethyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16 ± 3 h F $91 \pm 4\%$ pb $8 \pm 1\%$ ur $79 \pm 5\%$ | V 0.7 ± 0.1 CL 0.5 ± 0.1 Mwt 206.2 PSA 86.2 \AA^2 $\log P$ 0.35 | ETHYLPHENYLMALONAMIDE Metabolite of primidone (see below) |

| | | | |
|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15±4 h F 92±18% pb 19% ur 46±16% | V CL 0.55±0.12 Mwt 218.3 PSA 58.2 Å ² log P 0.83 | PRIMIDONE Anticonvulsant Metabolites: phenobarbital, ethylphenylmalonamide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 99±18 h F 100±11% pb 51±3% ur 24±5% | V CL 0.06±0.01 Mwt 232.2 PSA 75.3 Å ² log P 0.53 | PHENOBARBITAL Anticonvulsant, sedative, hypnotic; Metabolism: N-glucosylation, N-glucuronidation, aromatic 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 30–50 h F 75% pb 65% ur – | V CL – Mwt 246.3 PSA 66.5 Å ² log P 1.23 | MEPHOBARBITAL Anticonvulsant, sedative, hypnotic, CYP inducer Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation, N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25 h F 100% pb 90% ur – | V CL – Mwt 266.3 PSA 66.5 Å ² log P 3.61 | BUCOLOME Antiinflammatory, CYP2C9 inhibitor Metabolism: N-glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4±1 h F >90% pb 47±5% ur <1% | V CL 3.9±0.7 Mwt 236.3 PSA 66.5 Å ² log P 1.46 | HEXOBARBITAL Sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: 3'-(allylic)-hydroxylation, then oxidation to 3'-ketone, little N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13±5 h F – pb 70% ur <5% | V CL 0.5–0.6 Mwt 236.3 PSA 75.3 Å ² log P 1.50 | CYCLOBARBITAL Sedative, hypnotic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±3 h F – pb – ur <1% | V CL – Mwt 250.3 PSA 75.3 Å ² log P 2.03 | HEPTABARBITAL Sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: dehydrogenation to cycloheptadiene |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|---------|-------|---------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 4±2 h | V | 2.2±0.7 | METHOHEXITAL |
| | F | – | CL | 11±3 | Anesthetic |
| | pb | 73% | Mwt | 262.3 | Metabolism: 4'-(propargylic)- |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 66.5 Å ² | hydroxylation |
| | | | log P | 2.01 | (no N-demethylation) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 24±10 h | V | – | APROBARBITAL |
| | F | – | CL | – | Sedative, hypnotic |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 210.2 | Metabolism: epoxidation |
| | ur | – | PSA | 75.3 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 1.28 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 35–88 h | V | – | BUTALBITAL |
| | F | – | CL | – | Sedative, hypnotic |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 224.3 | Metabolism (dog): |
| | ur | – | PSA | 75.3 Å ² | dihydroxylation of |
| | | | log P | 1.79 | alkene, terminal hydroxylation of isobutyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 15 h | V | – | TALBUTAL |
| | F | – | CL | – | Sedative, hypnotic |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 224.3 | Metabolism: dihydroxylation |
| | ur | – | PSA | 75.3 Å ² | of alkene |
| | | | log P | 1.79 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 19–34 h | V | 1.5 | SECOBARBITAL |
| | F | 90% | CL | 0.86 | Sedative, hypnotic |
| | pb | 50–70% | Mwt | 238.3 | Metabolism: dihydroxylation of |
| | ur | 10–20% | PSA | 75.3 Å ² | alkene, hydroxylation |
| | | | log P | 2.30 | at CH ₂ CH ₃ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 15–40 h | V | 0.9–1.4 | AMOBARBITAL |
| | F | – | CL | 0.5 | Sedative, hypnotic |
| | pb | 50±10% | Mwt | 226.3 | Metabolism: 3'-hydroxylation |
| | ur | 1% | PSA | 75.3 Å ² | (at tertiary CH), N-glucosylation |
| | | | log P | 2.18 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 35–50 h | V | 0.5–1.0 | PENTOBARBITAL |
| | F | – | CL | 0.50–0.65 | Sedative, hypnotic |
| | pb | 50–65% | Mwt | 226.3 | Metabolites: |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 75.3 Å ² | 1-methyl-3-hydroxybutyl, |
| | | | log P | 2.18 | 1-methyl-3-carboxypropyl |

| | | | | |
|---|--|----------------------------------|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9.0±1.6 h F – pb 85±4% ur <1% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 2.3±0.5 3.9±1.2 242.3 90.3 Å ² 3.05 | THIOPENTAL Anesthetic Metabolites: 1-methyl-3-hydroxybutyl, 1-methyl-3-carboxypropyl, pentobarbital |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18–34 h F – pb – ur 1.6% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | – – 224.3 75.3 Å ² 1.18 | VINYLBITAL Sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: devinylation (via diol) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 34–42 h F – pb 26% ur 5–9% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 0.8 0.23 212.3 75.3 Å ² 1.82 | BUTETHAL Sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: hydroxylation at CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₃ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 35–50 h F – pb – ur 3–5%* | V CL Mwt PSA log P | – – 212.3 75.3 Å ² 1.67 | BUTABARBITAL *dog Sedative, hypnotic Metabolism (dog): oxidative degradation of 2-butyl to 1-carboxy-2-propyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 70 h F – pb – ur 80% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | – – 184.2 75.3 Å ² 0.80 | BARBITAL Sedative, hypnotic Metabolite of <i>N</i> -ethyl- and <i>N</i> , <i>N'</i> -dimethylbarbital |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–6 h F – pb – ur – | V CL Mwt PSA log P | – – 183.3 46.2 Å ² 0.65 | METHYPRYLON Sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: dehydrogenation to 1,2,3,4-tetrahydropyridine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 41±4 h F – pb 48% ur 3% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | – – 273.7 62.8 Å ² 0.48 | CHLORMEZANONE Anxiolytic Metabolism: amide hydrolysis, oxidation and conjugation to 4-chlorobenzoylglycine; withdrawn in 1996 for causing epidermal necrolysis |

(continued overleaf)

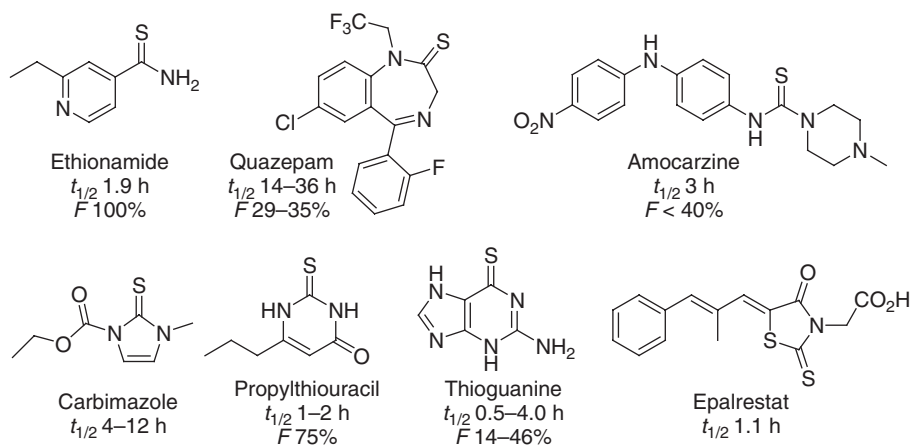
| | | | |
|--|--|--|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 40–55 h <i>F</i> 40–45% pb >99% ur <1% | <i>V</i> 4 CL 2.4 Mwt 315.7 PSA 38.8 Å ² log <i>P</i> 4.84 | EFAVIRENZ Antiviral (HIV) Metabolism: hydroxylation at arene (position 8, ortho of NH) and at tertiary cyclopropyl CH (propargylic position) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1 h <i>F</i> 100% pb – ur – | <i>V</i> 13.7 CL – Mwt 169.6 PSA 38.3 Å ² log <i>P</i> 1.82 | CHLORZOXAZONE Muscle relaxant Metabolism: aromatic 6-hydroxylation, then hydrolysis of carbamate and N-acetylation, reductive dechlorination of 6-hydroxychlorzoxazone |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 37 h (iv) <i>F</i> 55% (rat) pb >99% ur – | <i>V</i> 10 CL 15 Mwt 359.7 PSA 38.3 Å ² log <i>P</i> 2.97 | MAXIPOST, BMS 204352 Potassium channel opener Metabolism: demethylation, then fluoride displacement by nucleophiles |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; *F*, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; *V*, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

39

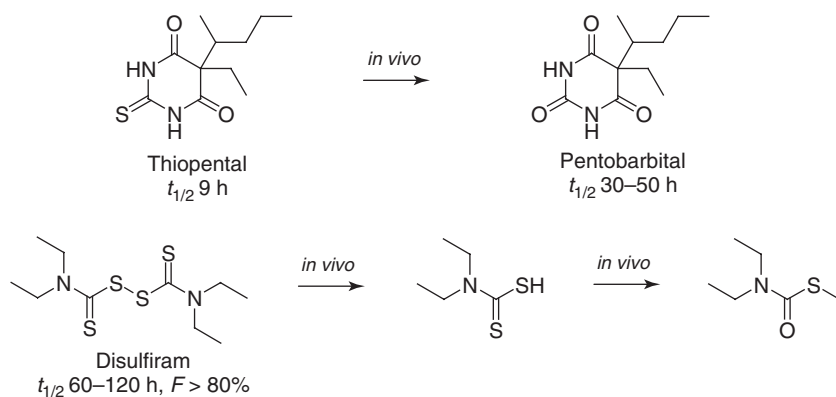
Thiocarbonyl Compounds

Despite their high chemical reactivity and frequent toxicity, a surprisingly large number of drugs contain thiocarbonyl groups. These include tuberculostatics (ethionamide, prothionamide), hypnotics (quazepam), anthelmintics (amocarzine), antihyperthyroids (carbimazole, propylthiouracil), anesthetics (thiopental, methitural), and aldose reductase inhibitors for the prevention of eye and nerve damage in diabetics (epalrestat, tolrestat) (Scheme 39.1).



Scheme 39.1 Thiocarbonyl compounds as drugs.

Thiocarbonyl compounds are readily oxidized and then hydrolyzed to the corresponding carbonyl compounds (Scheme 39.2). Thiocarbonyl groups also absorb UV light at longer wavelengths than similar carbonyl compounds (e.g., acetamide: $\lambda_{\max} < 210$ nm; thioacetamide: $\lambda_{\max} = 358$ nm) and are often light sensitive. Further metabolic transformations of thiocarbonyl compounds include S-methylation and the reduction of $CSNH_2$ to hydroxymethyl.



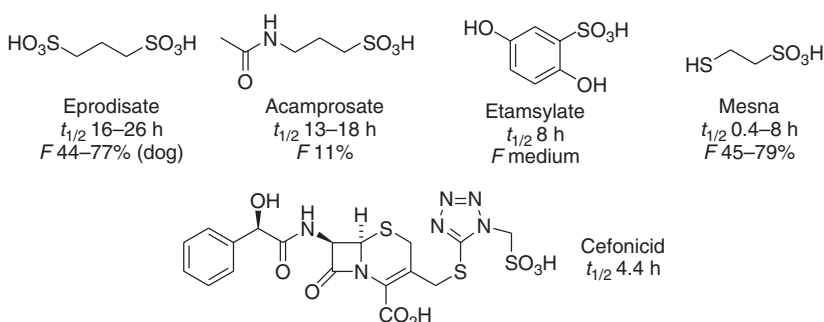
Scheme 39.2 Metabolism of thiocarbonyl compounds.

Oxidized thiocarbonyl derivatives are reactive, potentially toxic electrophiles. One example is metiamide, a potent and orally available histamine H_2 -antagonist (for suppression of gastric acid formation, Scheme 20.3). Metiamide was developed from burimamide, which had low oral bioavailability because of its high basicity and hydrophilicity. Metiamide, however, was too toxic, and the final drug resulting from this program was cimetidine in which the thiourea had been replaced by a less reactive cyanoguanidine group.

40

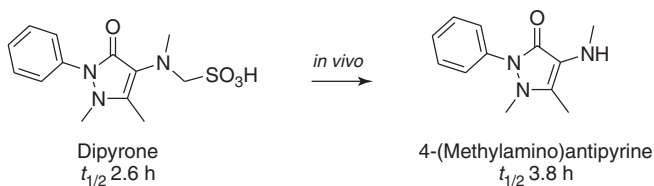
Sulfonic Acids

Sulfonic acids are strong acids ($pK_a \approx -2$), completely deprotonated at physiological pH. Only sulfonic acids of low molecular weight can be absorbed from the intestine and are orally bioavailable. On the other hand, sulfonic acids are highly water soluble and well suited for liquid, parenteral formulations. A selection of therapeutic sulfonic acids is shown in Scheme 40.1 and Table 40.1.



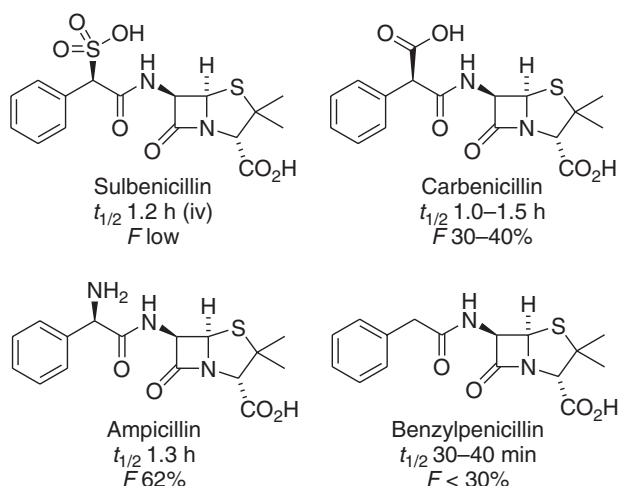
Scheme 40.1 Sulfonic acids as drugs.

α -Aminosulfonic acids are unstable and readily decompose into sulfite, aldehydes, and amines, like the bisulfite adducts of aldehydes (α -hydroxysulfonic acids). Accordingly, the solubility of amino-group-containing drugs may be enhanced by converting them into aminosulfonic acid salts (by treatment with formaldehyde and sulfite). This strategy has, for instance, been realized in dipyrone (Scheme 40.2).



Scheme 40.2 Metabolism of dipyrone.

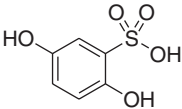
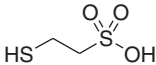
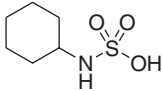
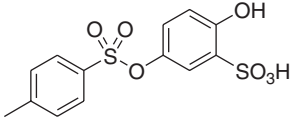
A comparison of PK (pharmacokinetic) data of various analogs of benzylpenicillin is given in Scheme 40.3. The amino group leads to higher oral bioavailability, while the corresponding carboxylic and sulfonic acids show poor oral bioavailability but are better suited for liquid formulations for parenteral administration.



Scheme 40.3 Impact of various functional groups on the PK properties of penicillins.

Table 40.1 Sulfonic acids. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | | | |
|--|-----------|------------|--------------|----------------------|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ | 13–18 h | V | 1.1 | ACAMPROSATE |
| | F | 11% | CL | 3.4–5.7 | GABA agonist for treatment of |
| | pb | Negligible | Mwt | 181.2 | alcoholism; Metabolism: |
| | ur | 50% | PSA | 91.9 \AA^2 | N-deacetylation to homotaurine |
| | | | $\log P$ | –2.63 | (tramiprosate, an antiamyloidogenic agent for treatment of Alzheimer's disease; $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ | 16–26 h | V | Small | EPRODISATE |
| | F | 44–77%* | CL | – | *dog |
| | pb | 0% | Mwt | 204.2 | Treatment of amyloidosis |
| | ur | 6.5% | PSA | 126 \AA^2 | |
| | | | $\log P$ | –4.10 | |

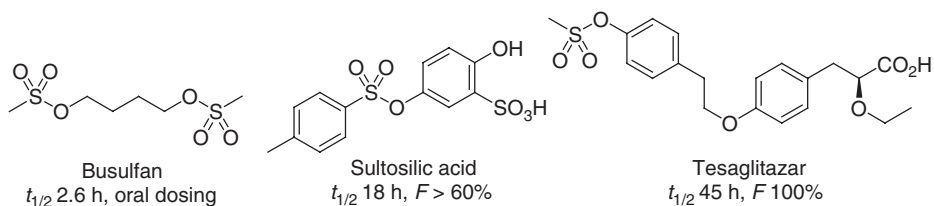
| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|---------|-------|---------------------|-------------------------------------|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 8 h | V | 0.4* | ETAMSYLATE |
| | F | Medium | CL | 3.5* | *calves, iv |
| | pb | 95% | Mwt | 190.2 | Hemostatic |
| | ur | 72% | PSA | 94.8 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | -1.84 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 0.4–8 h | V | 2.1 | MESNA |
| | F | 45–79% | CL | 12.6 | Scavenger of acrolein formed by |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 142.2 | metabolism of cyclophosphamide and |
| | ur | 36% | PSA | 54.4 Å ² | ifosfamide; Metabolism: |
| | | | log P | -2.28 | oxidative dimerization to disulfide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 8 h* | V | – | CYCLAMATE |
| | F | <37% | CL | – | *rat, dog |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 179.2 | Artificial sweetener |
| | ur | 30–40% | PSA | 74.8 Å ² | Metabolite: cyclohexylamine |
| | | | log P | 1.03 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 18 h | V | – | SULTOSILIC ACID |
| | F | >60% | CL | 0.8 | Antihyperlipidemic |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 344.4 | Metabolism: hydroxylation and |
| | ur | 28% | PSA | 135 Å ² | oxidation of methyl |
| | | | log P | 0.75 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; GABA, γ -aminobutyric acid.

41

Sulfonic Esters

Alkyl sulfonates are strong alkylating agents, similar to alkyl chlorides or bromides, and are usually too reactive to act as reversible ligands of proteins. However, alkylating agents, in particular cross-linking agents, may be useful for the treatment of certain types of cancer. Thus, busulfan, the dimesylate of 1,4-butanediol, is a valuable drug for the treatment of chronic granulocytic leukemia (Scheme 41.1).



Scheme 41.1 Sulfonic esters as drugs.

Neopentyl or aryl sulfonates, on the other hand, cannot readily undergo nucleophilic substitution and may, therefore, be used as structural element of nonalkylating drugs.

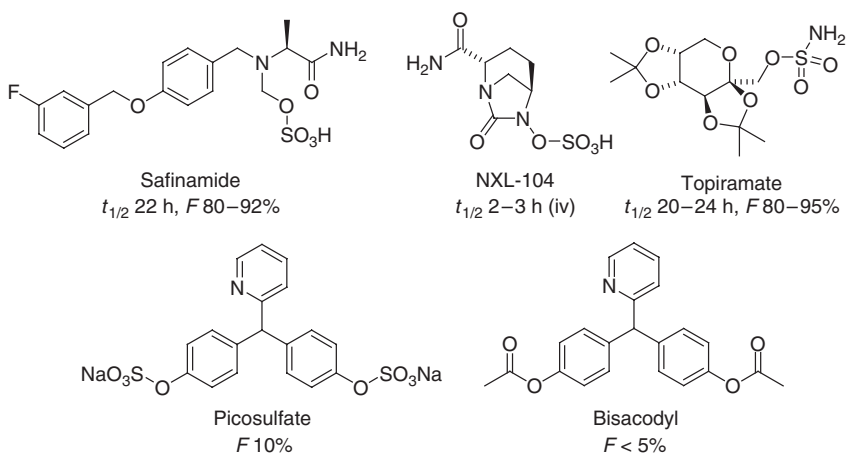
42

Sulfates and Sulfamic Acids

The O-sulfation of phenols is a typical metabolic transformation to enhance the solubility of xenobiotics and lower their ability to cross biological membranes. Medicinal chemists can, similarly, enhance the solubility of phenols and alcohols by O-sulfation. However, the oral bioavailability will usually be lowered by O-sulfation. This strategy has only rarely been used in drug design.

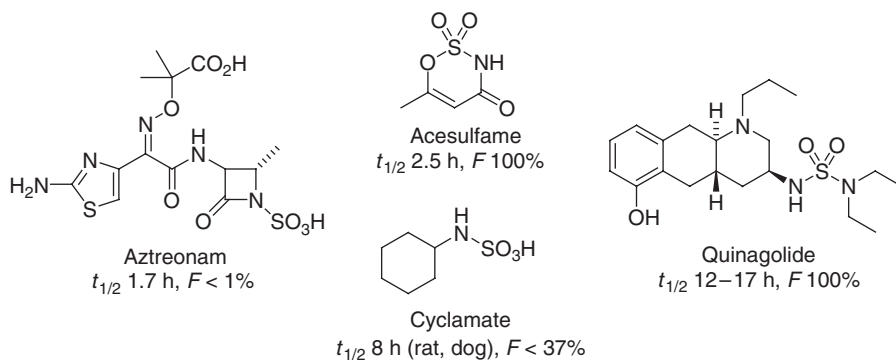
Monoaryl- and monoalkylsulfates (ArOSO_3H , ROSO_3H) are chemically quite stable and usually less toxic than the corresponding phenols and alcohols. A number of drugs are metabolized to biologically active O-sulfates (e.g., triamterene, minoxidil), and in the future, an increasing number of such sulfated metabolites will probably be developed as liquid formulations for parenteral administration.

Picosulfate and bisacodyl are laxatives for oral administration (Scheme 42.1). Bisacodyl is deacetylated by intestinal bacteria. These compounds are poorly absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract and act by stimulating peristaltic mobility and by increasing the excretion of water into the intestine. Both compounds show similar biological properties, a further indication that phenols and their sulfates can be bioisosteres. Sulfates will, however, be less orally bioavailable and less membrane penetrating because of their complete ionization at physiological pH.



Scheme 42.1 Therapeutic sulfates and sulfamic esters.

Closely related to sulfates are sulfamic acids (R_2NSO_3H) and their esters (Scheme 42.2). These compounds can be metabolically rather stable, such as the artificial sweeteners acesulfame and cyclamate. The latter is, though, partially metabolized to cyclohexylamine.

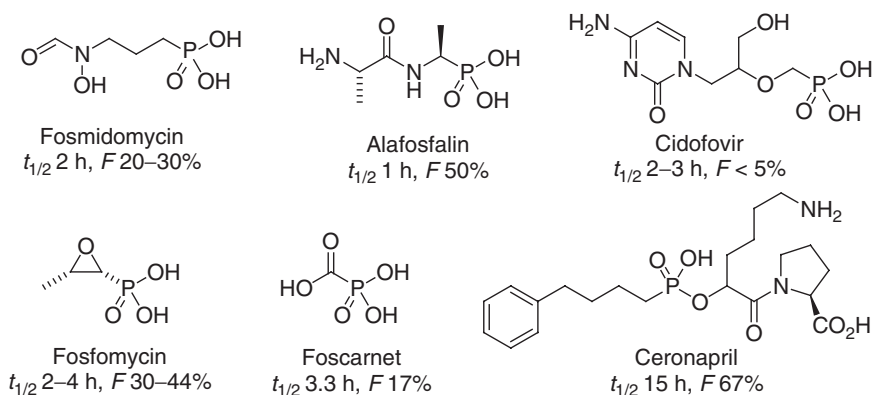


Scheme 42.2 Sulfamic acids and sulfamic esters.

43

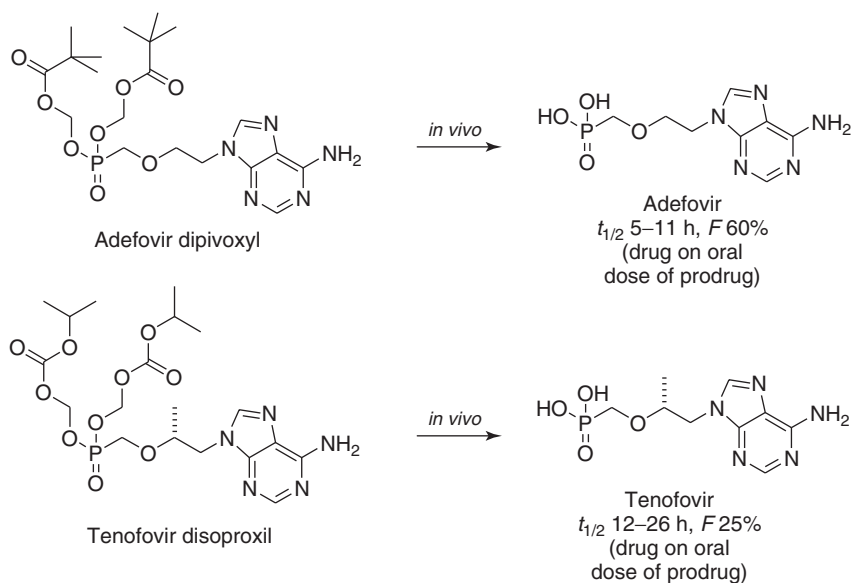
Phosphonic Acids

Phosphonic acids (pK_a 2–3 and 8–9) are strong acids and will be completely ionized under physiological conditions. Their oral bioavailability is low because of high fraction of anionic phosphonate. Most of these strong acids can cause esophagitis, gastritis, or peptic ulcers. The phosphonic acid group can be used as mimetic of phosphate monoesters (such as nucleotides or pyrophosphates) in antiviral drugs or as carboxylate analog (Scheme 43.1). Phosphonate monoesters, such as ceronapril, are stable if phosphate-hydrolyzing enzymes (e.g., DNAses or RNAses) do not accept them as substrates.



Scheme 43.1 Therapeutic phosphonic acids.

To improve oral bioavailability, prodrugs of phosphonic acids have been developed. Two examples of such prodrugs (antivirals) are shown in Scheme 43.2.

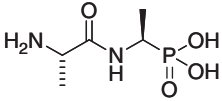
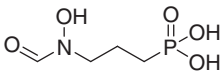
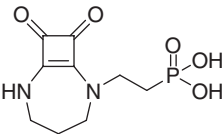
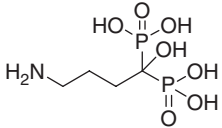
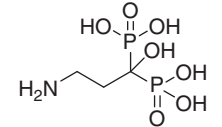
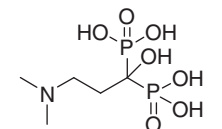
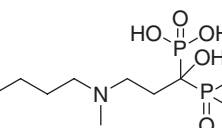
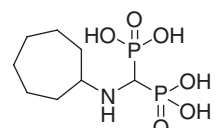


Scheme 43.2 Prodrugs of antiviral phosphonic acids.

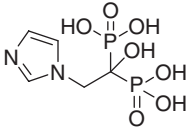
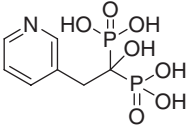
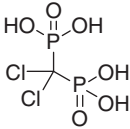
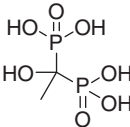
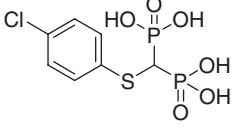
A special group of phosphonic acids are the bisphosphonates, for instance, alendronic acid (Table 43.1). These compounds inhibit bone resorption and are used to treat Paget's disease (abnormal bone formation) and osteoporosis. Because of their strong acidity and low lipophilicity, most bisphosphonates are poorly absorbed from the intestine and are usually dosed parenterally. Despite their variable plasma half-lives, once incorporated into bones, bisphosphonates remain there for a long time.

Table 43.1 Phosphonic acids. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | | | |
|--|-----------|-------------------------|----------|----------------------|---------------|
| | $t_{1/2}$ | $3.3 \pm 1.5 \text{ h}$ | V | 0.43 ± 0.13 | FOSCARNET |
| | F | $17 \pm 4\%$ | CL | 2.0 ± 0.6 | Antiviral |
| | pb | $15 \pm 2\%$ | Mwt | 126.0 | |
| | ur | $82 \pm 13\%$ | PSA | 105 \AA^2 | |
| | | | $\log P$ | -1.90 | |
| | $t_{1/2}$ | 12 h (iv) | V | 0.32 | FOSFOMYCIN |
| | F | – | CL | 2 | Antibacterial |
| | pb | 0% | Mwt | 138.1 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 79.9 \AA^2 | |
| | | | $\log P$ | -1.23 | |

| | | | |
|---|--|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h F 50% pb <10% ur 6–17% | V – CL – Mwt 196.1 PSA 122 Å ² $\log P$ –2.89 | ALAFOSFALIN Antibacterial Metabolism: amide hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–2.0 h F 20–30% pb <3% ur 26% | V – CL – Mwt 183.1 PSA 98.1 Å ² $\log P$ –1.58 | FOSMIDOMYCIN Antimalarial |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.7 h F 3–5% pb – ur – | V 0.43 CL 2.5 Mwt 260.2 PSA 117 Å ² $\log P$ –1.84 | PERZINFOTEL, EAA 090 NMDA antagonist, neuroprotectant, analgesic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10.5 years* F 0.8–1.8% pb 78% ur 40–60% | V 0.4 CL 2.8 Mwt 249.1 PSA 161 Å ² $\log P$ –3.46 | ALENDRONIC ACID *in bone Bone resorption inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 28±7 h F 0.2% pb 54% ur 100% | V – CL 6.7 Mwt 235.1 PSA 181 Å ² $\log P$ –0.89 | PAMIDRONIC ACID Bone resorption inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ – F 2–4% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 263.1 PSA 158 Å ² $\log P$ –2.77 | OLPADRONIC ACID Bone resorption inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–60 h F 0.6% pb 90–99% ur 60% | V 1.3–2.0 CL 0.17–0.18 Mwt 319.2 PSA 158 Å ² $\log P$ 2.33 | IBANDRONIC ACID Bone resorption inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6–2.0 h* F Low pb – ur 55–70% | V – CL – Mwt 287.2 PSA 147 Å ² $\log P$ –0.97 | INCADRONIC ACID *iv Bone resorption inhibitor |

(continued overleaf)

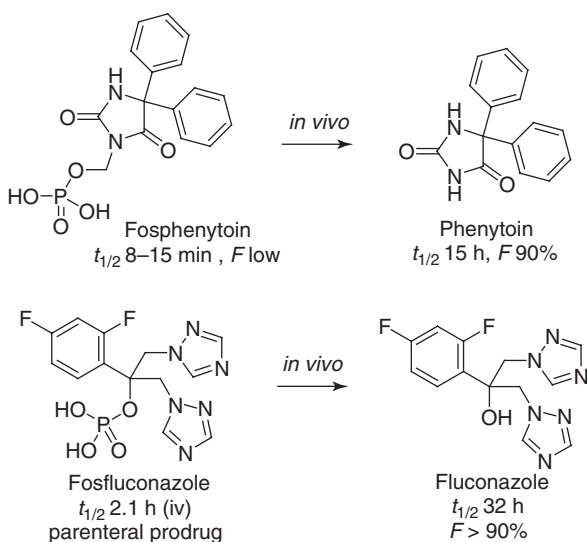
| | | | |
|--|--|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 146–167 h F <1% pb 43–56% ur 39% | V 0.09–0.15 CL 1.0–1.3 Mwt 272.1 PSA 168 Å ² log P –2.28 | ZOLEDRONIC ACID Bone resorption inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 66–480 h F <1% pb 24% ur 87% | V 6.3 CL 3.8 Mwt 283.1 PSA 168 Å ² log P 0.55 | RISEDRONIC ACID Bone resorption inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13–15 h F 1–2% pb 2–36% ur 70–90% | V 0.3–0.8 CL 1.4–1.7 Mwt 244.9 PSA 135 Å ² log P 1.11 | CLODRONIC ACID Bone resorption inhibitor, calcium regulator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–6 h F 1.5–3.5% pb – ur 100% | V 0.3–1.3 CL 1.5 Mwt 206.0 PSA 155 Å ² log P –0.75 | ETIDRONIC ACID Calcium regulator for treatment of hypercalcemia |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 50±10 h F 6% pb 90% ur 60% (iv) | V – CL – Mwt 318.6 PSA 160 Å ² log P 2.00 | TILUDRONIC ACID Bone resorption inhibitor |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; NMDA, *N*-methyl D-aspartic acid.

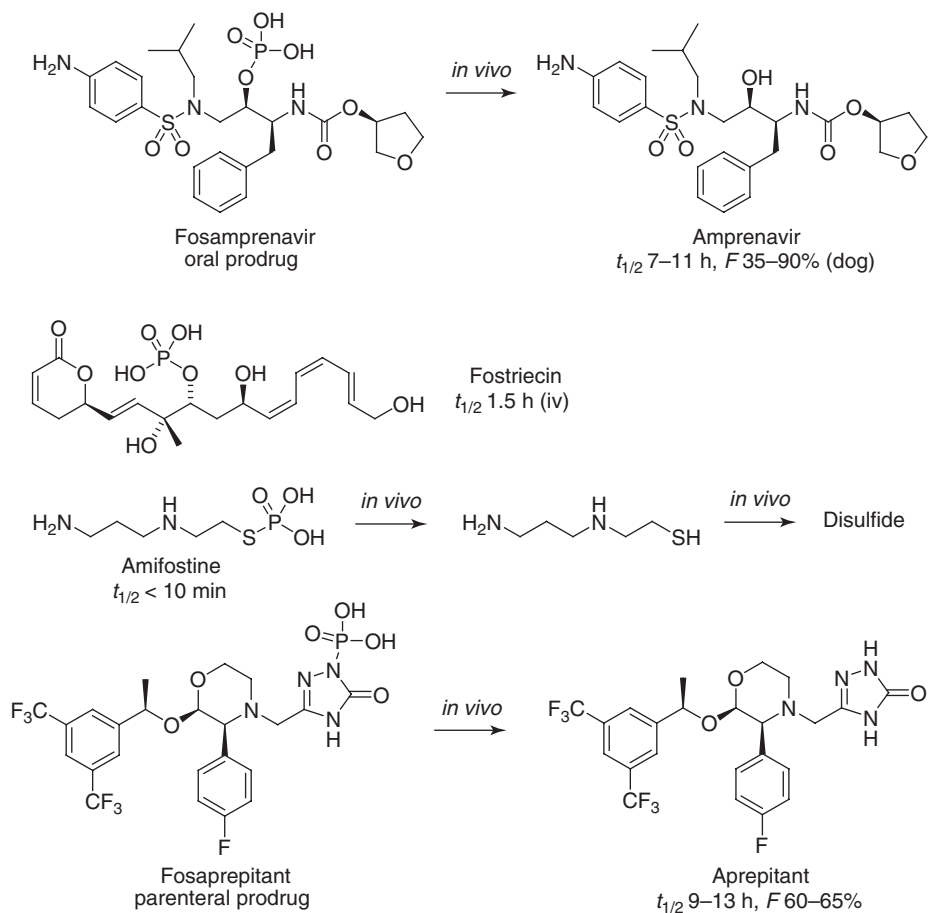
44

Phosphoric Acid Derivatives

Phosphoric acid monoesters or -amides ($\text{XPO}(\text{OH})_2$; $\text{X} = \text{RO}, \text{RS}, \text{R}_2\text{N}$) usually have short half-lives in plasma because of rapid hydrolysis by ubiquitous phosphatases. Phosphates may, therefore, be used as prodrugs of alcohols, thiols, or NH groups (Scheme 44.1). Phosphates can enhance the solubility of drugs in water (to improve absorption or enable liquid formulations for parenteral administration), and, by conversion into salts, raise their melting points. The latter aspect is particularly useful for drugs that are liquid or low-melting alcohols or phenols.



Scheme 44.1 Phosphate-based prodrugs and their metabolism.



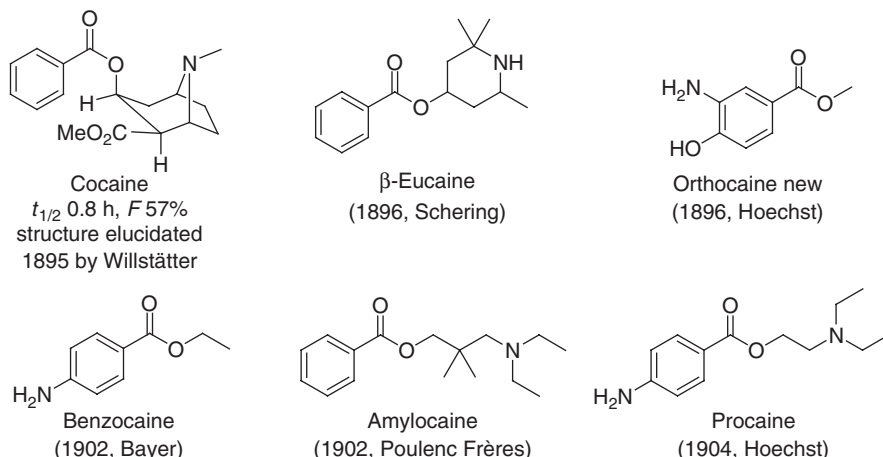
Scheme 44.1 (Continued).

45

N-(Aminoalkyl)benzamides, -Benzoates, and Related Compounds

It was known for long that oral cocaine numbs the mouth. In 1883, Carl Koller, a student of ophthalmology at the University of Vienna, discovered that cocaine was well suited as a topical anesthetic for the eye. If a solution of cocaine is trickled into the eye of a frog or human, the cornea can be touched without causing the normal eye-closing reflex [1].

This finding led to intensive search for more readily accessible, less toxic, and less addicting alternatives to cocaine. Some of the earliest analogs used as local anesthetics are shown in Scheme 45.1. The main initial problems of these drugs were low potency, skin irritation, and low solubility in water. Most of these issues were finally solved with procaine, which became one of the most widely used local anesthetics, until the discovery of lidocaine in 1948 (Chapter 54).



Scheme 45.1 Local anesthetics.

The metabolically more stable amide analog of procaine, procainamide, is not only a local anesthetic but also an antiarrhythmic, by virtue of its Na⁺-channel

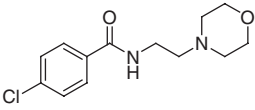
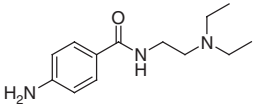
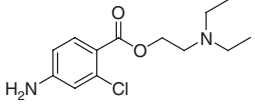
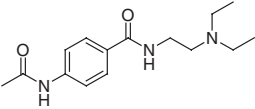
blocking properties. Interestingly, additional small structural variations can lead to a loss of anesthetic and antiarrhythmic activity and give rise to dopamine antagonism, as in metoclopramide, and to serotonin agonism. A large number of drugs for a variety of indications contain the *N*-(aminoalkyl)benzamide substructure (Table 45.1). These compounds are mainly monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors (antidepressants), 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) agonists (antiemetics and gastroprokinetics), and dopamine antagonists (antipsychotics and gastroprokinetics).

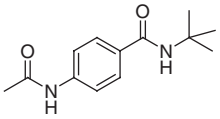
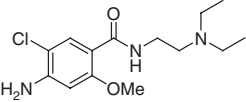
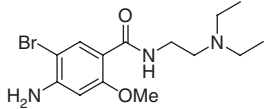
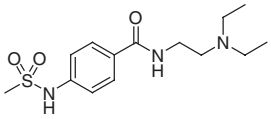
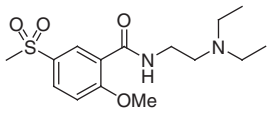
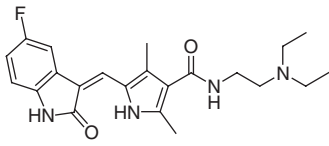
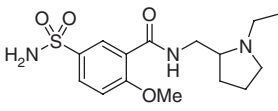
Aminoalkylbenzoates such as procaine have short plasma half-lives (<5 min) owing to rapid ester hydrolysis. *N*-(Aminoalkyl)benzamides are more stable and are mainly metabolized by *N*-dealkylation, *N*-oxidation, and aromatic hydroxylation. Aminobenzoic acid derivatives are *N*-acetylated reversibly.

Reference

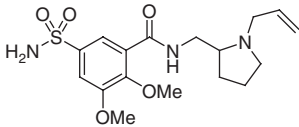
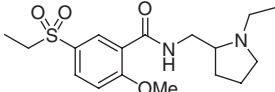
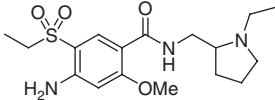
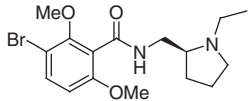
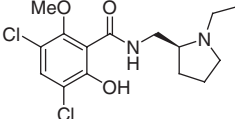
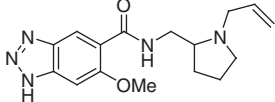
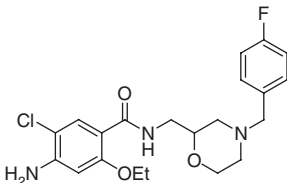
1. Sneader, W. (1994) Local anesthetics. *Drug News Perspect.*, 7, 60–64.

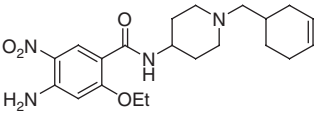
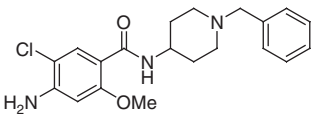
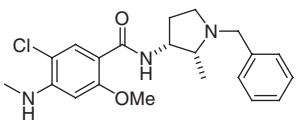
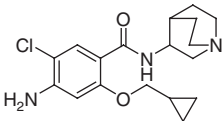
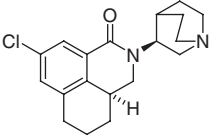
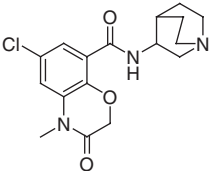
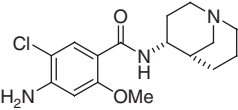
Table 45.1 Aminoalkylbenzamides, aminoalkylbenzoates, and related compounds. *V* in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|--------------|---------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3±1 h | <i>V</i> | 1–2 | MOCLOBEMIDE |
| | <i>F</i> | 60±20% | CL | 5–13 | MAO inhibitor, antidepressant |
| | pb | 50% | Mwt | 268.7 | Metabolism: morpholine |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 41.6 Å ² | N-oxidation, aromatic |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 1.34 | hydroxylation, and morpholine N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3.0±0.6 h | <i>V</i> | 1.9±0.3 | PROCAINAMIDE |
| | <i>F</i> | 83±16% | CL | 2.7 | Na channel blocker, antiarrhythmic |
| | pb | 16±5% | Mwt | 235.3 | Metabolism: N-acetylation (to |
| | ur | 67±8% | PSA | 58.4 Å ² | acecainide), N-deethylation, and |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 1.32 | N-oxidation, only 1% amide hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 20–25 s | <i>V</i> | – | CHLOROPROCAINE |
| | <i>F</i> | – | CL | – | Local anesthetic |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 270.8 | Metabolism: ester hydrolysis |
| | ur | – | PSA | 55.6 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 2.83 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 6.0±0.2 h | <i>V</i> | 1.4±0.2 | ACECAINIDE, |
| | <i>F</i> | 83±12% | CL | 3.1±0.4 | N-ACETYLPROCAINAMIDE |
| | pb | 10±9% | Mwt | 277.4 | Antiarrhythmic |
| | ur | 81±1% | PSA | 61.4 Å ² | Metabolism: N-deethylation |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 1.51 | and N-deacetylation |

| | | | |
|---|---|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 40 h F 55% (rat) pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 234.3 PSA 58.2 Å ² $\log P$ 1.54 | CPI-1189 Treatment of dementia and irritable bowel disease, crosses bbb |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.0±1.4 h F 76±38% pb 40±4% ur 20±9% | V 3.4±1.3 CL 6.2±1.3 Mwt 299.8 PSA 67.6 Å ² $\log P$ 2.16 | METOCLOPRAMIDE Dopamine antagonist, antiemetic, gastroprokinetic; Metabolism: aniline sulfation and glucuronidation, oxidation of CH ₂ NEt ₂ to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F 54–75% pb 40% ur 10–14% | V 3.1 CL 13 Mwt 344.3 PSA 67.6 Å ² $\log P$ 2.54 | BROMOPRIDE Dopamine antagonist, antiemetic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.6±0.8 h F 47±15% pb 4% ur 36±12% | V 0.8 CL 3.7 Mwt 313.4 PSA 86.9 Å ² $\log P$ 1.15 | SEMATILIDE Antiarrhythmic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 h F 75% pb Negligible ur 54–76% | V 1.4 CL 4.3 Mwt 328.4 PSA 84.1 Å ² $\log P$ 1.22 | TIAPRIDE Antidyskinetic Metabolism: N-deethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 40–60 h F 70% pb 95% ur <16% | V 34 CL 9–16 Mwt 398.5 PSA 77.2 Å ² $\log P$ 3.16 | SUNITINIB Kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic; active metabolite: N-desethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 80–110 h, pb 90%) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–8 h F 25–36% pb 11–18% ur 15% | V 0.94 CL 1.9 Mwt 341.4 PSA 110 Å ² $\log P$ 0.78 | SULPIRIDE Dopamine D ₂ antagonist, antipsychotic, antidepressant, antiemetic; Metabolism: oxidation of pyrrolidine to 2-pyrrolidone, no amide hydrolysis |

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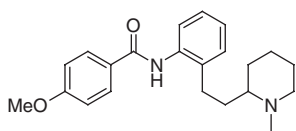
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 383.5 PSA 119 Å ² log P 0.73 | VERALIPRIDE Suppression of menopausal hot flushes; withdrawn |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–11 h F – pb <25% ur 90% | V – CL – Mwt 354.5 PSA 84.1 Å ² log P 1.39 | SULTOPRIDE Dopamine D ₂ antagonist, antipsychotic; Metabolism (rat): O-demethylation, S-deethylation, oxidation of pyrrolidine, amide hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h F 50±2% pb 16% ur 26–50% | V 5.8 CL 20 Mwt 369.5 PSA 110 Å ² log P 1.50 | AMISULPRIDE Dopamine D ₂ /D ₃ antagonist, antipsychotic; Metabolism: oxidation of pyrrolidine to 2-pyrrolidone, N-deethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–7 h F >90% pb 84% ur 10–40% | V 0.7 CL 1.5–1.7 Mwt 371.3 PSA 50.8 Å ² log P 2.19 | REMOXIPRIDE Dopamine D ₂ antagonist, antipsychotic; Metabolism: oxidation to lactam, N-deethylation, hydroxylation of pyrrolidone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–13 h F 65–67% pb – ur <1% | V 1.5 CL/F 2.2±0.5 Mwt 347.2 PSA 61.8 Å ² log P 3.58 | RACLOPRIDE Dopamine D ₂ antagonist, neuroleptic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 75–100% pb 75% ur High | V 1.6 CL 6.6 Mwt 315.4 PSA 83.1 Å ² log P 0.84 | ALIZAPRIDE Antipsychotic, antiemetic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.4–2.0 h F 14%* pb 99% ur <1% | V 1.7–3.5 CL 14–21 Mwt 421.9 PSA 76.8 Å ² log P 2.82 | MOSAPRIDE *monkey 5-HT ₄ agonist, gastroprokinetic Metabolite: des-4-fluorobenzyl |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–8 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 402.5 PSA 113 Å ² log P 3.76 | CINITAPRIDE 5-HT ₁ and 5-HT ₄ agonist, gastroprokinetic Metabolism: N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24 h F – pb – ur – | V 1.6–3.2* CL – Mwt 373.9 PSA 67.6 Å ² log P 2.70 | CLEBOPRIDE *rat, dog Antiemetic, antispasmodic Metabolites: glucuronide, desbenzyl; no amide hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–9 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 387.9 PSA 53.6 Å ² log P 3.78 | NEMONAPRIDE D ₂ antagonist, 5-HT _{1A} agonist Metabolism: N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16±3 h F 82–92% pb – ur 10–17% | V – CL – Mwt 349.9 PSA 67.6 Å ² log P 2.85 | PANCOPRIDE 5-HT ₃ antagonist, antiemetic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 37±12 h F 97% pb 62% ur 40% | V 6.9–7.9 CL 2.7 Mwt 296.4 PSA 23.6 Å ² log P 2.61 | PALONOSETRON 5-HT ₃ antagonist, antiemetic Metabolism: N-oxidation (tertiary amine), benzylic (6) hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–8 h F 90% pb – ur 60–70% | V – CL – Mwt 349.8 PSA 61.9 Å ² log P 1.83 | AZASETRON 5-HT ₃ antagonist, antiemetic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 323.8 PSA 67.6 Å ² log P 1.83 | RENZAPRIDE 5-HT ₄ agonist, 5-HT ₃ antagonist, gastroprokinetic |

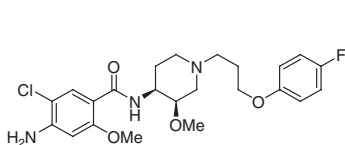
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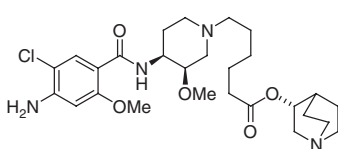
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|-----------|--------|---------|---------------------|---------------------------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 11±3 h | V | 4.9±0.4 | FLECAINIDE |
| F | 70±11% | CL | 5.6±1.3 | Antiarrhythmic |
| pb | 61±10% | Mwt | 414.3 | Metabolism: <i>m</i> -O-dealkylation, |
| ur | 43±3% | PSA | 59.6 Å ² | oxidation to lactam |
| | | log P | 3.19 | |



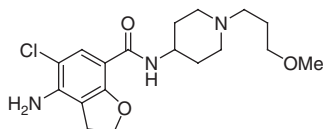
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 2–12 h | v | 2–4 | ENCAINIDE |
| F | 30–55% | CL | 11–13 | Antiarrhythmic |
| pb | 70–80% | Mwt | 352.5 | Metabolism: O-demethylation; |
| ur | <10% | PSA | 41.6 Å ² | withdrawn in 1991 because of |
| | | log P | 3.75 | excessive patient mortality |



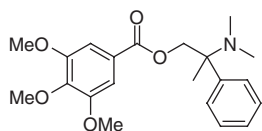
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 7–10 h | V | 2.4 | CISAPRIDE |
| F | 40–50% | CL | – | Peristaltic stimulant; Metabolism: |
| pb | 98% | Mwt | 466.0 | N-dealkylation of piperidine, |
| ur | 1–3% | PSA | 86.1 Å ² | hydroxylation of phenoxy, cleavage |
| | | log P | 2.83 | of fluorophenyl ether, no amide |
| | | | | hydrolysis; withdrawn in 2000 for |
| | | | | causing cardiac arrhythmias |



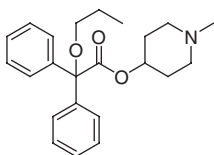
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 5.4 h | V | — | NARONAPRIDE |
| F | — | CL | — | 5-HT ₄ agonist, gastroprokinetic |
| pb | 30–40% | Mwt | 537.1 | Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, |
| ur | — | PSA | 106 Å ² | aniline glucuronidation, and |
| | | log P | 2.02 | oxidative degradation of alkanolic acid side chain |



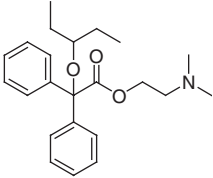
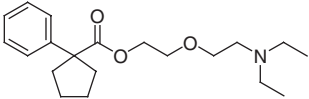
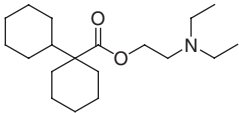
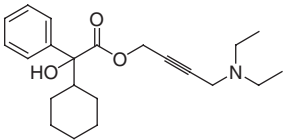
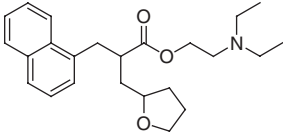
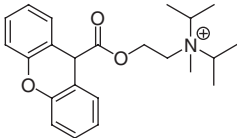
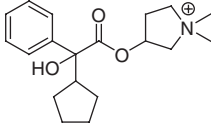
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 22–34 h | V | 8.7 | PRUCALOPRIDE |
| F | >90% | CL | 4.9 | 5-HT ₄ agonist, gastropromkinetic |
| pb | 30% | Mwt | 367.9 | Metabolism: O-demethylation, then |
| ur | 60% | PSA | 76.8 Å ² | oxidation of alcohol to carboxylic |
| | | log P | 1.44 | acid |



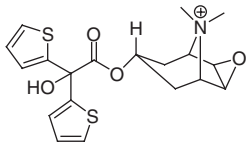
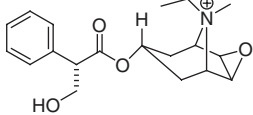
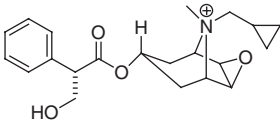
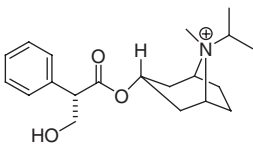
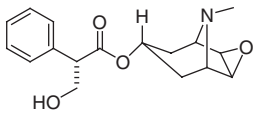
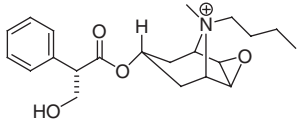
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 9±3 h | <i>V</i> | 1.4 | TRIMEBUTINE |
| <i>F</i> | 4–6% | CL | – | Antispasmodic |
| pb | <5% | Mwt | 387.5 | Metabolism: N-demethylation, |
| ur | <2.4% | PSA | 57.2 Å ² | ester hydrolysis |
| | | log <i>P</i> | 4.84 | |

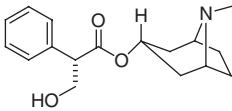
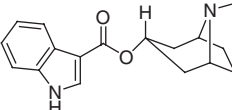
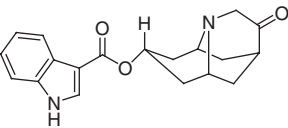
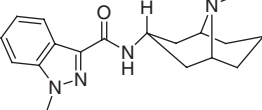
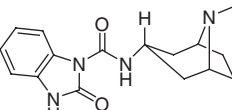
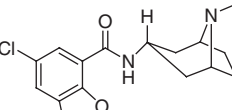


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|-----------|--------|----------|---------------------|--|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 20 h | V | — | PROPIVERINE |
| F | 36–42% | CL | — | Anticholinergic, treatment of |
| pb | 90% | Mwt | 367.5 | urinary incontinence |
| ur | 6–8% | PSA | 38.8 Å ² | Metabolites: <i>N</i> -oxide, |
| | | $\log P$ | 4.37 | <i>N</i> -desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 20 h), <i>O</i> -despropyl |

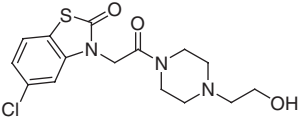
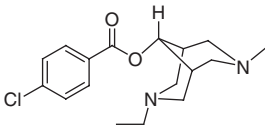
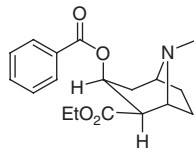
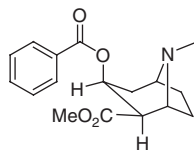
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 34 h (iv) F 37% pb – ur 33% (rat) | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 7.1 5.7 383.5 38.8 Å ² 4.88 | DENAVERINE Antispasmodic Metabolism: N-demethylation (first-pass), ester hydrolysis, and O-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.3 h F <50% pb – ur <0.5% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | – – 333.5 38.8 Å ² 4.11 | CARBETAPENTANE, PENTOXYVERINE Antitussive Metabolism: ester hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–10 h F 67% pb >99% ur – | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 3.7 – 309.5 29.5 Å ² 4.64 | DICYCLOMINE, DICYCLOVERINE Anticholinergic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F 6% pb >99% ur <0.1% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 1–3 5–6 357.5 49.8 Å ² 5.05 | OXYBUTYNIN Anticholinergic Metabolism: N-deethylation, hydrolysis of ester, and hydroxylation of cyclohexane |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 h F – pb 60–80% ur <1% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 0.9 – 383.5 38.8 Å ² 3.91 | NAFRONYL, NAFTIDROFURYL Vasodilator, crosses bbb Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, oxidation to 2-furanone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6 h F 5–15% pb – ur 3–5% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | – – 368.5 35.5 Å ² 0.79 | PROPANTHELINE Anticholinergic Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.6–1.2 h F 1–13% pb – ur 65–80% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 0.4–1.8 9 318.4 46.5 –0.85 | GLYCOPYRROLATE Anticholinergic |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 d <i>F</i> 2–3%* pb 71–79% ur 74% (iv)** | <i>V</i> 32 CL 10.9 Mwt 392.5 PSA 59.1 Å ² log <i>P</i> –1.94 | TIOTROPIUM *20% on inhalation **14% on inhalation Muscarinic antagonist, bronchodilator Metabolism: ester hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5 h <i>F</i> 0.5%* pb 7% ur 0.3% | <i>V</i> 3.6 CL 31 Mwt 332.4 PSA 59.1 Å ² log <i>P</i> –2.56 | OXITROPIUM *12% on inhalation Bronchodilator Metabolism: ester hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h (iv) <i>F</i> 1–4% pb – ur 50% (iv) | <i>V</i> – CL – Mwt 358.5 PSA 59.1 Å ² log <i>P</i> –2.06 | CIMETROPIUM Antispasmodic Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, ester hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–4.0 h* <i>F</i> 1–6% pb <20% ur 24%** | <i>V</i> 4.6 CL 31 Mwt 332.5 PSA 46.5 Å ² log <i>P</i> –1.47 | IPRATROPIUM *iv; **50% (iv) Muscarinic antagonist, bronchodilator, antiarrhythmic Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, elimination of water to α-phenylacrylic acid, dehydroxymethylation to phenylacetic ester |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3±1 h <i>F</i> 27±12% pb – ur 6±4% | <i>V</i> 1.4±0.7 CL 16±13 Mwt 303.4 PSA 62.3 Å ² log <i>P</i> 1.05 | SCOPOLAMINE Anticholinergic, treatment of motion sickness; Metabolism: aromatic 3- and 4-hydroxylation, then phenolic O-methylation, ester hydrolysis, N-demethylation, and dehydration |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h <i>F</i> <1% pb Low ur 50% | <i>V</i> 2 CL 19 Mwt 360.5 PSA 59.1 Å ² log <i>P</i> –1.49 | BUTYLSCOPOLAMMONIUM, BUTYLSCOPOLAMINE Antispasmodic Metabolism: ester hydrolysis |

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 h F 50% pb 14–40% ur 50% | V 2–4 CL 7.6 Mwt 289.4 PSA 49.8 Å ² log P 1.38 | ATROPINE (racemate) Anticholinergic; Metabolism: N-demethylation, N-oxidation, and ester hydrolysis; the shown enantiomer (hyoscyamine) has similar PK as atropine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–8 h F 27–99% pb 59–71% ur 8–10% | V 6.6–9.7 CL 3–26 Mwt 284.4 PSA 45.3 Å ² log P 3.03 | TROPISETRON 5-HT ₃ antagonist, antiemetic, CYP2D6 substrate; Metabolism: aromatic 5-, 6-, and 7-hydroxylation, N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–9 h* F 70–89% pb 69–77% ur 19–38% | V 1.6–7.3 CL 6–14 Mwt 324.4 PSA 62.4 Å ² log P 2.82 | DOLASETRON 5-HT ₃ antagonist, antiemetic; *prodrug ($t_{1/2}$ < 10 min): fast <i>in vivo</i> reduction of ketone to alcohol; all values for alcohol on oral dosing of ketone; further metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, N-oxidation of tertiary amine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.3±3.5 h F 60% pb 65±9% ur 16±14% | V 3.0±1.5 CL 11±9 Mwt 312.4 PSA 45.2 Å ² log P 1.47 | GRANISETRON 5-HT ₃ antagonist, antiemetic Metabolism: N-demethylation of indazole, aromatic 6- and 7-hydroxylation, then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11–14 h F 64–72% pb – ur 59–73% | V – CL – Mwt 300.4 PSA 64.7 Å ² log P 1.31 | ITASETRON 5-HT ₃ antagonist, antiemetic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25–37 h F – pb 75% ur 36% | V – CL – Mwt 348.9 PSA 41.6 Å ² log P 3.19 | ZATASETRON 5-HT ₃ antagonist, antiemetic Metabolism: N-oxidation, N-demethylation, benzylic hydroxylation, then oxidation of alcohol to ketone |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|---|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3 h F – pb 24–34% ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 355.8 PSA 89.4 Å ² log P 1.18 | TIARAMIDE Antiasthmatic, antiinflammatory Metabolism: O-glucuronidation, N-de(hydroxyethylation), oxidation to N-oxide, and N-acetic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±4 h F 56±20% pb – ur – | V 9 CL 17 Mwt 322.8 PSA 32.8 Å ² log P 2.05 | BISARAMIL Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: ester hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5 h (iv) F – pb 36% ur – | V 1.6 CL 13 Mwt 317.4 PSA 55.8 Å ² log P 2.79 | COCAETHYLENE Recreational drug (highly addictive) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8±0.2 h F 57±19% pb 91% ur <2% | V 2.0±0.2 CL 32±6 Mwt 303.4 PSA 55.8 Å ² log P 2.28 | COCAINE Local anesthetic, recreational drug (highly addictive) |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier; PK, pharmacokinetics.

46

Arylalkylamines

For each amine-containing natural neurotransmitter, several different receptors are known: four histamine receptors, five dopamine receptors, seven serotonin receptors, and five adrenaline receptors (two α and three β receptors). Each receptor is expressed to a different extent in different tissues and elicits a different biological response. Because of the close structural relationship between the hormones, many amine-based unnatural ligands at these receptors have similar structures, and many are nonselective. For most of these receptors, both agonists and antagonists have been developed.

In the following section, most known arylalkylamines are listed, to illustrate pharmacokinetics (PK) changes on minimal and continuous structural modification. Therefore, no arrangement according to the target protein or indication was attempted.

Amines with one, two, or more aryl/heteroaryl groups are useful drugs for a wide variety of indications. The most important drugs of this type include antiallergics, antipruritics, nootropics, antipsychotics, antidepressants, anxiolytics, sedatives, hypnotics, antiepileptics, antiemetics, analgesics, vasodilators, and antiarrhythmics.

46.1**Antihistaminics: History**

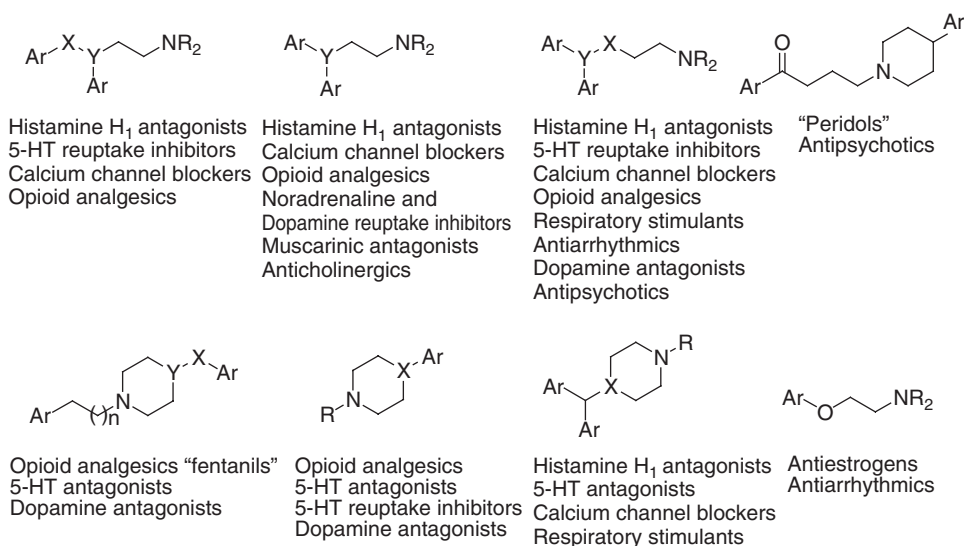
In the 1930s, several academic laboratories and pharmaceutical companies began seeking compounds that could antagonize the most obvious biological effects of histamine, namely, bronchoconstriction and vasodilation, to gain a better understanding of the physiological role of histamine. Among the first compounds to be marketed as “antihistaminics” (histamine H_1 antagonists) were pyrilamine (1944), triphenylamine (1946), diphenhydramine (1946), and metapyrilene (1947). These drugs, followed by many analogs, became hugely popular for the suppression of the symptoms of common cold and hay fever and are still used for this purpose today. Because of the sedating effect of these “first generation” antihistaminics, caused by their ability to cross the blood–brain barrier (bbb) and block the H_1 receptors in the central nervous system (CNS), these drugs were also used as

hypnotics. One patient treated with diphenhydramine reported that she did no longer get motion sick on the streetcar, and this effect could be confirmed in a group of sailors in 1947. Since then, antihistaminics were also used as remedy for motion sickness and as antiemetics (e.g., cyclizine, 1949) [1].

To overcome the sedating effect of these bbb-crossing H_1 antagonists, more hydrophilic drugs were developed, the first ones being terfenadine (1982), astemizole (1983), and loratadine (1986). Their large polar surface areas ($>40 \text{ \AA}^2$) keep them from entering the CNS.

The most common metabolic transformations of arylalkylamines include N-dealkylation, N-oxidation, and aromatic hydroxylation.

Despite the large number of drugs containing an arylalkylamine substructure, most of them can be assigned to one of the generic structures given in Scheme 46.1. In these, Ar represents optionally substituted aryl or heteroaryl groups, R is alkyl, and X and Y are C, N, O, or CO. The compounds listed in Tables 46.1–46.4 appear in the same order as the generic structures in the sketch.

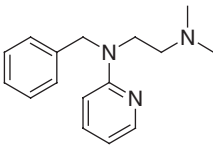
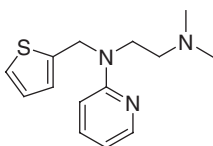
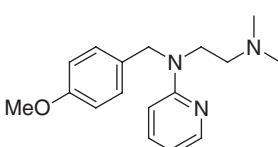
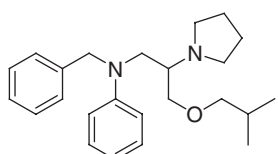
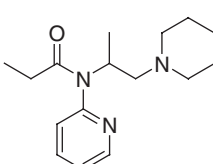
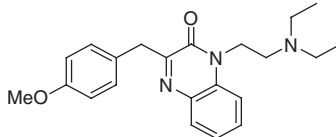


Scheme 46.1 Typical generic structures of arylalkylamine drugs.

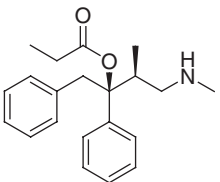
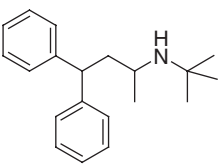
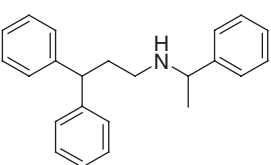
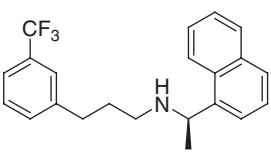
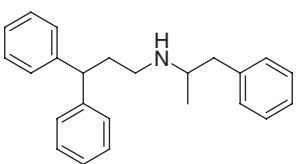
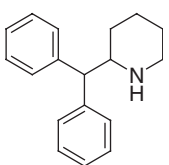
Reference

1. Sneader, W. (2001) Histamine and the classic antihistamines. *Drug News Perspect.*, **14**, 618–624.

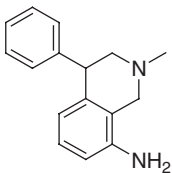
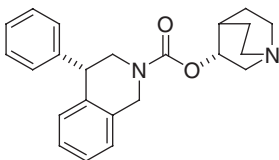
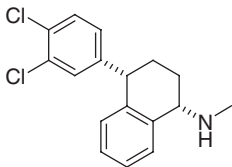
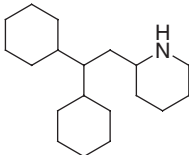
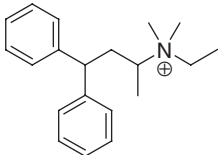
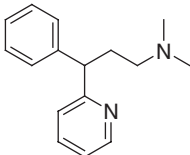
Table 46.1 (Arylalkyl)amines. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

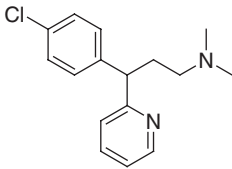
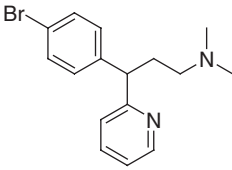
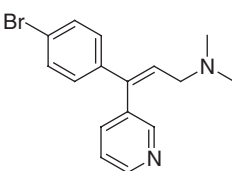
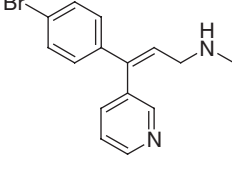
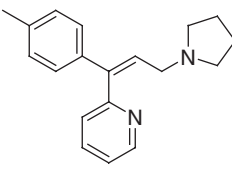
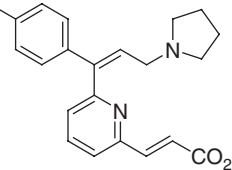
| | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.0–4.5 h F – pb – ur – | V 10 CL 32 Mwt 255.4 PSA 19.4 \AA^2 $\log P$ 2.78 | TRIPLENNAMINE Histamine H_1 antagonist Metabolism: aromatic p -hydroxylation, benzylic C-hydroxylation, N-depyridylation, N-debenzylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6 h (iv) F 4–46% pb – ur – | V 3.3 CL 28 Mwt 261.4 PSA 47.6 \AA^2 $\log P$ 2.78 | METAPYRILENE, THIONYLAN Histamine H_1 antagonist Metabolites: hydroxymethylthiophene, thiophene-2-carboxylic acid, 2-(2-thienylmethyl)aminopyridine), N-desmethyl; withdrawn in 1979 for being hepatocarcinogenic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–25 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 285.4 PSA 28.6 \AA^2 $\log P$ 2.67 | PYRILAMINE, MEPYRAMINE Histamine H_1 antagonist Duration of action: 4–6 h Metabolism: O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h F 60% pb >99% ur <1% | V 8 ± 5 CL 5.3 ± 2.5 Mwt 366.5 PSA 15.7 \AA^2 $\log P$ 5.80 | BEPRIDIL Calcium channel blocker, antianginal Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation to 4-aminophenols, N-debenzylation, then N-acetylation, isobutyl hydroxylation, pyrrolidine hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 h F >97% pb – ur 24% | V 2.3 CL 6.3 Mwt 275.4 PSA 36.4 \AA^2 $\log P$ 3.01 | PROPIRAM Analgesic, narcotic Metabolism: piperidine hydroxylation, then oxidation to lactam, then hydrolysis of lactam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25 min F Low pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 365.5 PSA 45.1 \AA^2 $\log P$ 3.61 | CAROVERINE Calcium channel blocker, antispasmodic |

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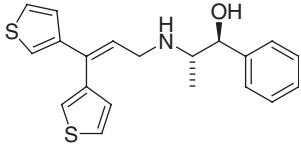
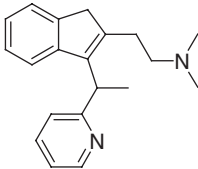
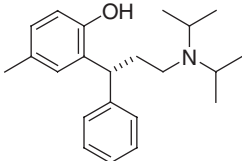
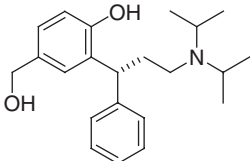
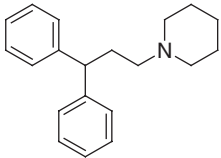
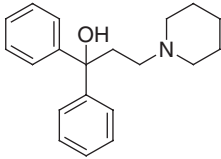
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|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18–37 h F – pb – ur 20–25% | V 10–25 CL 0.3 Mwt 325.4 PSA 38.3 \AA^2 log P 3.74 | NORPROPOXYPHENE Metabolite of propoxyphene |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 60 ± 5 h F $92 \pm 29\%$ pb 85% ur 15% | V 3.7–12.6 CL 1.1 Mwt 281.4 PSA 12.0 \AA^2 log P 4.68 | TERODILINE Calcium antagonist, antianginal Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation, benzylic hydroxylation; withdrawn in 1991 for QT interval prolongation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20–35 h F 2–16% pb – ur Traces | V – CL – Mwt 315.5 PSA 12.0 \AA^2 log P 5.20 | FENDILINE Calcium blocker, vasodilator Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, debenzoylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 30–40 h F 20–25% pb 97% ur – | V 15.4 CL – Mwt 357.4 PSA 12 \AA^2 log P 5.74 | CINACALCET Calcium mimetic Metabolism: dihydroxylation of naphthalene, oxidation to 3-(trifluoromethyl)cinnamide, oxidative degradation to 3-trifluoromethylbenzoic acid and glycine conjugate thereof |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14 ± 7 h F 15% pb 97% ur <0.1% | V – CL – Mwt 329.5 PSA 12.0 \AA^2 log P 5.7 | PRENYLAMINE Calcium channel blocker, coronary vasodilator Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16–20 h F >90% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 251.4 PSA 12.0 \AA^2 log P 4.07 | DESOXYPIPRADROL Noradrenaline/dopamine reuptake inhibitor for treatment of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder |

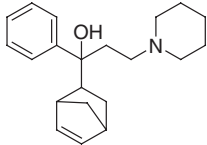
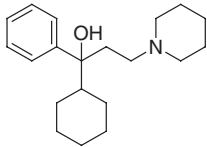
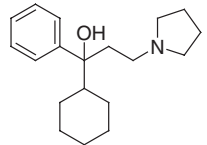
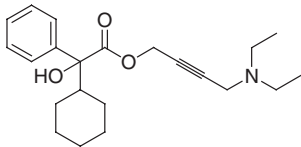
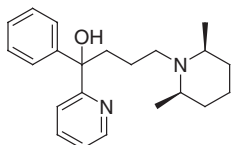
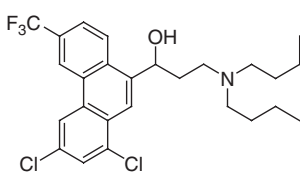
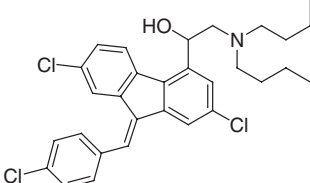
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|---|---|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F <30% pb 60% ur <5% | V 6 CL 22 Mwt 238.3 PSA 29.3 Å ² log P 1.01 | NOMIFENSINE Dopamine transport blocker, antidepressant Metabolism: N-glucuronidation, aromatic hydroxylation, aniline oxidation followed by glutathione conjugation; withdrawn in 1986 because of kidney and liver toxicity and induction of hemolytic anemia |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 45–68 h F 90% pb 98% ur 11% | V 9.2 CL 2.4 Mwt 362.5 PSA 32.8 Å ² log P 3.70 | SOLIFENACIN Anticholinergic for treatment of overactive bladder Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation (4 <i>R</i> -hydroxy), N-oxidation, N-glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 23 h F >44% pb >99% ur <0.2% | V/F 76±26 CL/F 38±14 Mwt 306.2 PSA 12.0 Å ² log P 5.08 | SERTRALINE Serotonin reuptake inhibitor, antidepressant Metabolite (20–60 times less potent than parent): <i>N</i> -desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 77±2 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–12 d F 88% pb – ur 0.1% | V/F 4–23 CL/F 0.5–5.6 Mwt 277.5 PSA 12.0 Å ² log P 6.47 | PERHEXILINE Carnitine palmitoyltransferase inhibitor, vasodilator, diuretic, antianginal Metabolism (CYP2D6); 4-hydroxylation of cyclohexyl; high interpatient variability of metabolism |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.9±0.4 h F Low pb – ur – | V – CL 6.2–9.7 Mwt 282.5 PSA 0.0 Å ² log P 0.56 | EMEPRONIUM Anticholinergic, antispasmodic Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17±1 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 240.3 PSA 16.1 Å ² log P 2.20 | PHENIRAMINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Metabolites: desmethyl, didesmethyl |

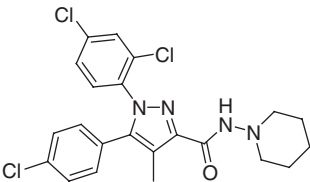
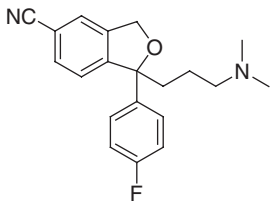
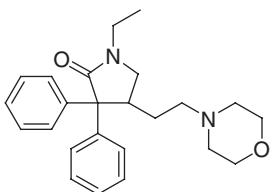
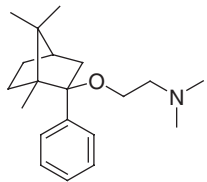
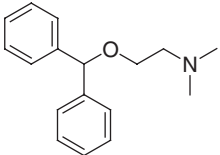
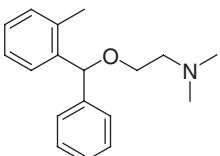
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20±5 h F 41±16% pb 70±3% ur 0.3–26% | V 3.2±0.3 CL 1.7±0.1 Mwt 274.8 PSA 16.1 Å ² $\log P$ 2.97 | CHLORPHENIRAMINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Duration of action: 5±1 h Metabolism: N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25±9 h F – pb 72% ur 3% | V 11.7±3.1 CL 6.0±2.3 Mwt 319.2 PSA 16.1 Å ² $\log P$ 3.24 | BROMPHENIRAMINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Duration of action: 5±1 h Metabolism: N-demethylation, oxidative deamination to 3-(2-pyridyl)-3-(4-bromophenyl)-propionic acid, then conjugation with glycine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5±2 h F 27±16% pb 90% ur – | V 3.2±2.0 CL – Mwt 317.2 PSA 16.1 Å ² $\log P$ 3.07 | ZIMELDINE Antidepressant Metabolism: N-demethylation, oxidation to pyridine-N-oxide and acrylic acid; withdrawn in 1983 for causing Guillain-Barré syndrome |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16±6 h F 64±27% pb 80% ur – | V 9.6±1.8 CL – Mwt 303.2 PSA 24.9 Å ² $\log P$ 2.45 | NORZIMELDINE Metabolite of zimeldine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5±1 h F 4% pb 90% ur – | V 5.8 CL 15.4 Mwt 278.4 PSA 16.1 Å ² $\log P$ 3.25 | TRIPROLIDINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Metabolism: CH ₃ hydroxylation and oxidation to carboxylic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5±1 h F 80% pb 50% ur 59% | V 0.64 CL 4.3±0.6 Mwt 348.4 PSA 53.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.41 | ACRIVASTINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Duration of action: 7±1 h Active metabolite: propionic acid formed by hydrogenation of alkene |

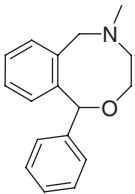
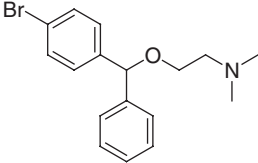
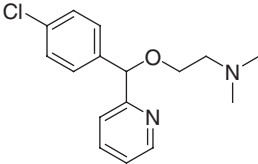
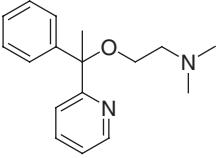
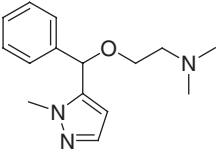
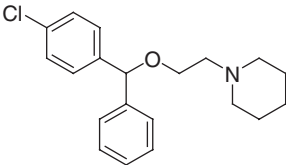
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.8 h* F 100%* pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 355.5 PSA 88.7 Å ² log P 3.42 | TINOFEEDRINE *dog |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6.3 h (iv) F – pb 90% ur 1% (po)* | V – CL – Mwt 292.4 PSA 16.1 Å ² log P 3.84 | DIMETHINDENE *5–10% (iv) Histamine H ₁ antagonist Metabolism: N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 10–74% pb 96% ur 1% | V 0.9–1.6 CL 8–11 Mwt 325.5 PSA 23.5 Å ² log P 5.77 | TOLTERODINE Antimuscarinic for treatment of urinary incontinence Metabolism: N-dealkylation by CYP3A, hydroxylation by CYP2D6 (see below) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–9 h F 52%* pb 64% ur 4% | V 2.6 CL 2.1 Mwt 341.5 PSA 43.7 Å ² log P 4.12 | 5-HYDROXYMETHYL TOLTERODINE Active metabolite of tolterodine *on oral dosing of fesoterodine (prodrug: arylester of isobutyric acid) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13 h* F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 279.4 PSA 3.24 Å ² log P 4.62 | FENPIPRANE *horse, iv Antispasmodic sc administration to humans (probably because of low F) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14 h F 77% pb – ur 9% | V – CL – Mwt 295.4 PSA 23.5 Å ² log P 3.35 | PRIDINOL, MYOSON Anticholinergic, antiparkinsonian, analgesic Metabolism: piperidine and aromatic hydroxylation |

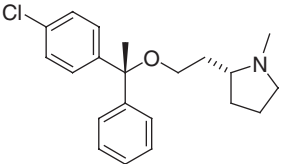
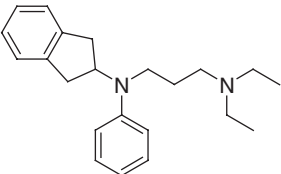
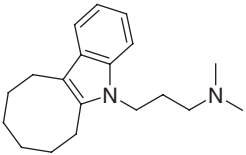
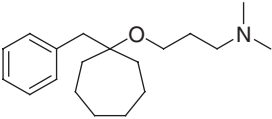
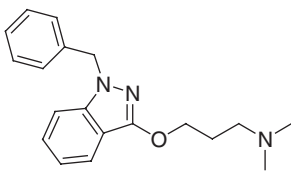
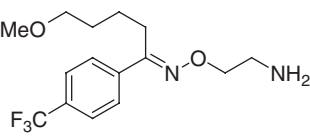
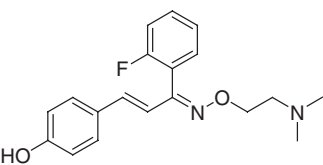
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11–21 h F 33±5% pb 91% ur 0% | V 24±4 CL 12±1 Mwt 311.5 PSA 23.5 Å ² log P 4.27 | BIPERIDEN Anticholinergic, antiparkinsonian Metabolism: hydroxylation of bicycloheptene (60%) and piperidine (40%) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–10 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL 6.3 Mwt 301.5 PSA 23.5 Å ² log P 4.39 | TRIHXYPHENIDYL Anticholinergic, antiparkinsonian Metabolism: hydroxylation, N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h F 75% pb 100% ur – | V 0.74 CL 0.86 Mwt 287.4 PSA 23.5 Å ² log P 3.86 | PROCYCLIDINE Anticholinergic, antiparkinsonian Metabolism (rat): cyclohexyl 3- and 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 2–11% pb >99% ur <1% | V 2.8 CL 6 Mwt 357.5 PSA 49.8 Å ² log P 5.05 | OXYBUTYNIN Anticholinergic Metabolism: N-deethylation, ester hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–18 h F 80–90% pb 80–90% ur 20–30% | V 1.5 CL 1.8–2.9 Mwt 338.5 PSA 36.4 Å ² log P 3.57 | PIRMENOL Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: oxidation of piperidine to iminium, then reversible tautomerization to enamine or hydrolysis to aminoketone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–10 d F 6±5%* pb >99% ur 0% | V 73 CL – Mwt 500.4 PSA 23.5 Å ² log P 8.90 | HALOFANTRINE *dog Antimalarial Metabolite: desbutyl ($t_{1/2}$ 3–11 d) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 d F Variable pb 99.7% ur – | V 2–4 CL – Mwt 528.9 PSA 23.5 Å ² log P 8.67 | LUMEFANTRINE Antimalarial Metabolism: N-debutylation |

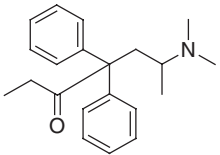
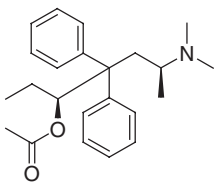
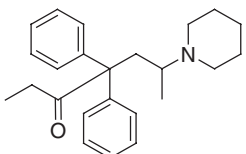
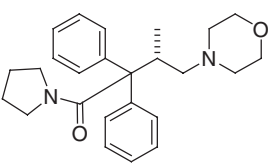
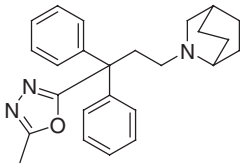
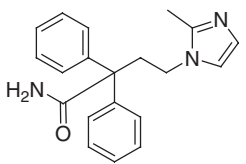
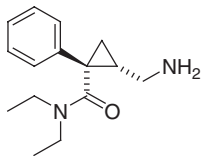
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–9 d F – pb >99.9% ur 3% | V – CL/F 1.3–2.3 Mwt 463.8 PSA 50.2 Å ² $\log P$ 4.85 | RIMONABANT Cannabinoid CB ₁ antagonist, appetite suppressant; withdrawn in 2008 because of depression and suicide risk |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 19–45 h F 80–100% pb 50–80% ur 6–31% | V 12–17 CL 5.7–6.3 Mwt 324.4 PSA 36.3 Å ² $\log P$ 3.48 | CITALOPRAM 5-HT reuptake inhibitor, antidepressant Metabolites: desmethyl (CYP2C19), didesmethyl (CYP2D6), <i>N</i> -oxide, deaminated propionic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h F 60% pb 76–85%* ur <5% | V 1.5 CL 5.7 Mwt 378.5 PSA 32.8 Å ² $\log P$ 5.64 | DOXAPRAM *horse Respiratory stimulant Metabolism: oxidative ring opening of morpholine, oxidation of morpholine to lactam (“2-ketodoxapram”) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 21–31 h F 23–50% pb – ur Traces (iv) | V 32–37 (dog) CL – Mwt 301.5 PSA 12.5 Å ² $\log P$ 3.72 | DERAMCICLANE 5-HT _{2A/2C} antagonist, anxiolytic Metabolite: <i>N</i> -desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 38±7 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±3 h F 61±25% pb 78±3% ur 2±1% | V 4.5±2.8 CL 6.2±1.7 Mwt 255.4 PSA 12.5 Å ² $\log P$ 3.00 | DIPHENHYDRAMINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Duration of action: 5±1 h Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation, oxidation of CH ₂ NMe ₂ to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16±3 h F 90% pb 95% ur 8% | V 4.5±2.8 CL 6.2±1.7 Mwt 269.4 PSA 12.5 Å ² $\log P$ 3.33 | ORPHENADRINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist, muscle relaxant, CYP2B inducer Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation, <i>N</i> -oxidation to <i>N</i> -oxide, oxidation of CH ₂ NMe ₂ to CO ₂ H, <i>O</i> -dealkylation to 2-methylbenzhydrol |

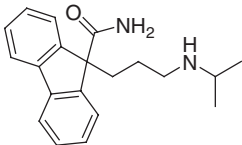
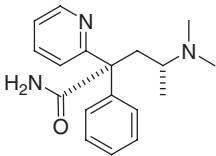
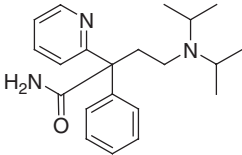
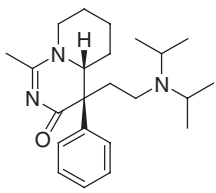
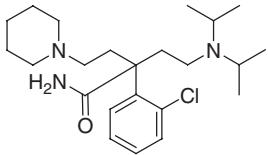
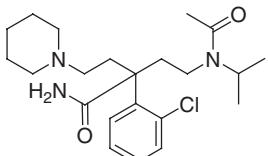
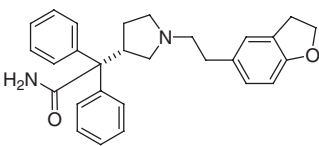
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–8 h F 40% pb 75% ur 5% | V 5.6 CL 12 Mwt 253.3 PSA 12.5 Å ² $\log P$ 1.91 | NEFOPAM Analgesic, antidepressant Metabolites: <i>N</i> -desmethyl, <i>N</i> -oxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3±1 h F 65% pb 96% ur – | V 0.9 CL – Mwt 334.3 PSA 12.5 Å ² $\log P$ 4.03 | BROMODIPHENHYDRAMINE, BROMAZINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Metabolism: <i>N</i> -oxidation, <i>N</i> -demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15±5 h F – pb – ur 5–8% | V – CL – Mwt 290.8 PSA 25.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.69 | CARBINOXAMINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist; duration of action: 3–6 h Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±3 h F 25% pb – ur 60% | V 2.5 CL 3.3 Mwt 270.4 PSA 25.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.34 | DOXYLAMINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist, hypnotic Metabolism: <i>N</i> -oxidation, <i>N</i> -demethylation, oxidation of CCH ₃ to CCO ₂ H and of CH ₂ NMe ₂ to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6.7–7.1 h F 60% (dog) pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 259.4 PSA 25.4 Å ² $\log P$ 1.61 | CIZOLIRTINE Analgesic Metabolism: <i>N</i> -oxidation, <i>N</i> -demethylation, <i>O</i> -dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–7 h F 40% pb >97% ur – | V – CL 14 Mwt 329.9 PSA 12.5 Å ² $\log P$ 4.58 | CLOPERASTINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 22±13 h F 37±12% pb 95% ur <2% | V 13±5 CL 8.3±1.6 Mwt 343.9 PSA 12.5 Å ² log P 5.30 | CLEMASTINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Duration of action: 18±6 h Metabolism: O-dealkylation to tertiary alcohol, aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–66 h F 75% pb 85–95% ur 2% | V 4 CL 1 Mwt 322.5 PSA 6.48 Å ² log P 5.68 | APRINDINE Antiarrhythmic, local anesthetic Metabolism: N-deethylation, de-indanylation, hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 53 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL 11 Mwt 284.4 PSA 8.17 Å ² log P 5.02 | IPRINDOLE Antidepressant Metabolism: N-demethylation, benzylic oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–18 h F 20–80% pb – ur 3% | V 7–9 CL 11 Mwt 289.5 PSA 12.5 Å ² log P 4.19 | BENCYCLANE Vasodilator Metabolism: hydroxylation, oxidation of cycloheptane to 4-hydroxy and 4-oxo |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–13 h F 87% pb 10–15% ur 5% | V 1.7–3.3 CL 2.5–3.0 Mwt 309.4 PSA 30.3 Å ² log P 3.56 | BENZYDAMINE Analgesic, antiinflammatory Metabolism: N-oxidation, aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–30 h F 50–60% pb 77% ur 3% | V 20–25 CL 15.2 Mwt 318.3 PSA 56.8 Å ² log P 3.71 | FLUVOXAMINE 5-HT reuptake inhibitor, antidepressant Metabolism: oxidation of CH ₂ OMe to CO ₂ H, N-acetylation, replacement of NH ₂ by OH |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 50 h F >70% pb 80% ur – | V 6* CL 33* Mwt 328.4 PSA 45.1 Å ² log P 4.22 | EPLIVANSERIN *baboon 5-HT _{2A} antagonist, hypnotic Metabolite: N-desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 70 h) |

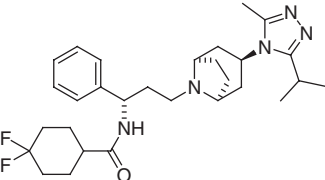
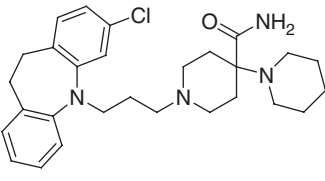
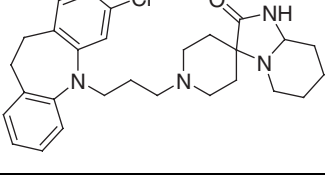
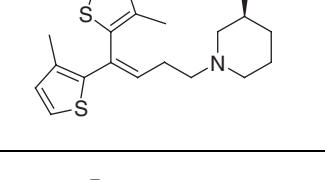
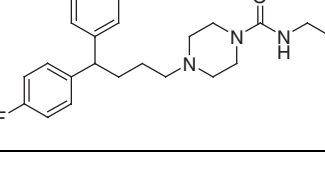
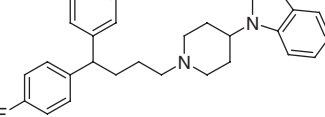
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 35±12 h F 92±21% pb 89±1.4% ur 24±10% | V 3.8±0.6 CL 1.4±0.5 Mwt 309.5 PSA 20.3 Å ² log P 3.93 | METHADONE Analgesic, racemate Metabolism: N-demethylation, then cyclization, aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–19 h F 48% pb 80% ur 20–25% | V 8.3 CL 5.4 Mwt 353.5 PSA 29.5 Å ² log P 4.24 | l-ACETYLMETHADOL Treatment of narcotic addiction Metabolism: N-demethylation, ester hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.2–3.8 h F – pb – ur 1% | V – CL – Mwt 349.5 PSA 20.3 Å ² log P 5.10 | DIPIPANONE Analgesic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4±1 h F – pb – ur <0.1% | V – CL 3.8 Mwt 392.5 PSA 32.8 Å ² log P 2.53 | DEXTROMORAMIDE Analgesic Metabolism (horse): aromatic 4-hydroxylation, N-dealkylation of amide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 27–36 h F 100% pb 90% ur – | V – CL 0.44 Mwt 387.5 PSA 42.2 Å ² log P 3.73 | NUFENOXOLE Antidiarrheal Metabolism: isoquinuclidine hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.0±0.3 h F 58% pb 88% ur 8% | V 1.9±0.4 CL 7.6±1.6 Mwt 319.4 PSA 56.0 Å ² log P 2.42 | IMIDAFENACIN Muscarinic antagonist Metabolism: N-glucuronidation, dihydroxylation and oxidative degradation of imidazole |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–8 h F 85–90% pb 13% ur 50–60% | V 5.3 CL 23 Mwt 246.4 PSA 46.3 Å ² log P 0.83 | MILNACIPRAN 5-HT reuptake inhibitor, Antidepressant Metabolism: N-deethylation |

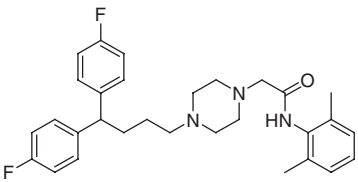
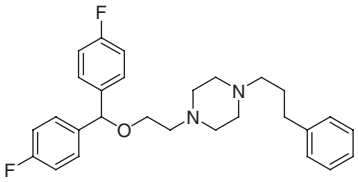
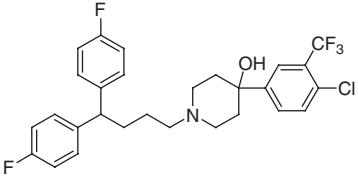
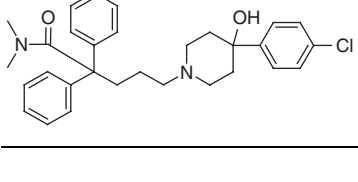
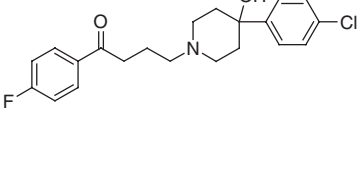
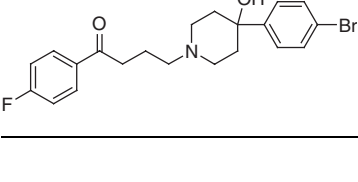
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h* F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 308.4 PSA 55.1 Å ² log P 3.87 | INDECAINIDE *monkey Antiarrhythmic Metabolite: <i>N</i> -desisopropyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.2 h F – pb – ur >80% | V – CL – Mwt 297.4 PSA 59.2 Å ² log P 1.45 | VAMICAMIDE Anticholinergic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6±1 h F 83±11% pb 68–89% ur 55±6% | V 0.6±0.2 CL 1.2±0.4 Mwt 339.5 PSA 59.2 Å ² log P 2.33 | DISOPYRAMIDE Antiarrhythmic Metabolite: <i>N</i> -desisopropyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1–1.9 h F 0–43% pb – ur 26% | V 1 CL 6.8±1.1 Mwt 369.5 PSA 35.9 Å ² log P 2.93 | ACTISOMIDE Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: hydroxylation of piperidine, <i>N</i> -deisopropylation and pyrrolidone formation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 54±18 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 408.0 PSA 49.6 Å ² log P 4.31 | DISOBUTAMIDE Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: <i>N</i> -deisopropylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h F 43–62% pb – ur 9% | V 4.3 CL 4 Mwt 408.0 PSA 66.6 Å ² log P 2.84 | BIDISOMIDE Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: piperidine hydroxylation, <i>N</i> -deisopropylation, deacetylation and cyclization to 2-pyrrolidone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13–19 h F 15–19% pb 98% ur 3% | V 2.6 CL 12 Mwt 426.6 PSA 55.6 Å ² log P 4.50 | DARIFENACIN Muscarinic acetylcholine M ₃ antagonist for treatment of urinary incontinence Metabolism: hydroxylation and ring opening of dihydrobenzofuran, <i>N</i> -dealkylation of pyrrolidine |

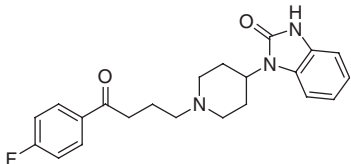
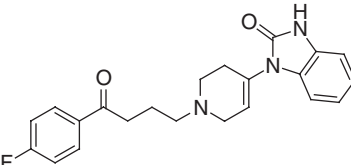
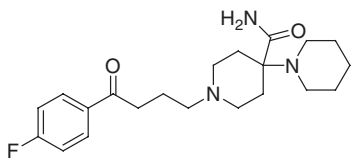
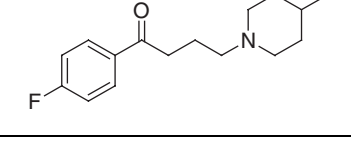
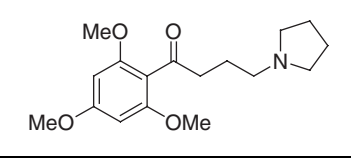
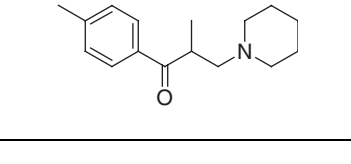
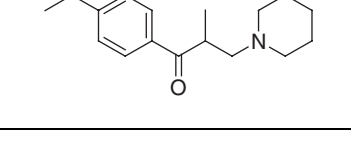
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F – pb 74–95% ur <1% | V 3.8 CL – Mwt 452.6 PSA 53.3 Å ² log P 4.51 | DIPHENOXYLATE Opiate receptor agonist, antidiarrheal Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, aromatic hydroxylation (PhC-CN) Active metabolite: acid (difenoxin, $t_{1/2}$ 4–12 h) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 8–10 h (iv) F – pb 94% ur Negligible | V 5–6 CL 6–9 Mwt 430.6 PSA 73.4 Å ² log P 2.78 | PIRITRAMIDE Analgesic Mostly administered iv |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 11–24 h F – pb – ur <0.3% | V – CL – Mwt 492.6 PSA 67.7 Å ² log P 4.16 | BEZITRAMIDE Analgesic Metabolism: hydrolytic removal of propionyl group |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 35–40 h F 100% pb 55% ur 65–70% | V 1.1 CL 0.43 Mwt 420.5 PSA 64.3 Å ² log P 4.05 | LEVOCABASTINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist; duration of action: 20±4 h Metabolism: glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 10–17 h F 1–19% pb 80–90% ur 2% | V 0.3–0.6 CL 6 Mwt 424.5 PSA 89.9 Å ² log P 3.38 | ALVIMOPAN Opiate antagonist; does not cross bbb Metabolism: amide hydrolysis |

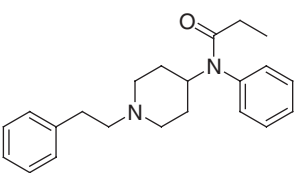
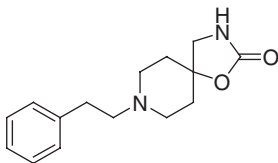
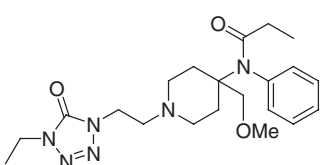
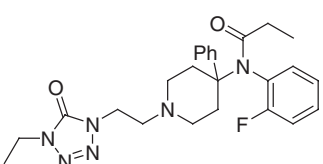
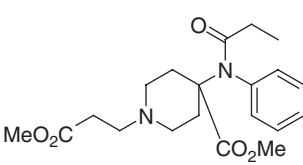
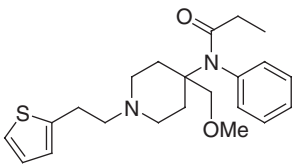
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16 h F 23–33% pb 76% ur 8% | V 3 CL 11.3 Mwt 513.7 PSA 63.1 Å ² log P 5.30 | MARAVIROC Antiviral (HIV) Metabolism: N-dealkylation of tropane |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 h (dog) F 16% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 481.1 PSA 52.8 Å ² log P 5.28 | CLOCAPRAMINE Antipsychotic Metabolite: mosapramine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15±2 h F 29±7% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 479.1 PSA 38.8 Å ² log P 7.36 | MOSAPRAMINE Antipsychotic, metabolite of clocapramine Metabolism: aromatic and benzylic hydroxylation, oxidation to imidazolone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–9 h F 90% pb 96% ur 2% | V 1 CL 3 Mwt 375.6 PSA 97.0 Å ² log P 4.03 | TIAGABINE GABA reuptake inhibitor, antiepileptic Metabolism (CYP3A4): glucuronidation, thiophene oxidation to 2-thiophenone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h (pig) F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 401.5 PSA 35.6 Å ² log P 4.12 | AMPEROZIDE Mixed D _{2/5} –HT ₂ antagonist, atypical antipsychotic Metabolism: N-deethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 111±57 h F 40–50% pb 99% ur <1% | V/F 28±18 CL 4.1±3.8 Mwt 461.6 PSA 35.6 Å ² log P 5.76 | PIMOZIDE Dopamine antagonist, antipsychotic Metabolism: N-dealkylation of piperidine |

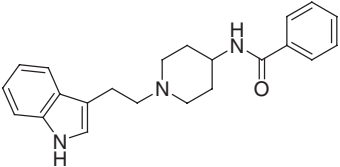
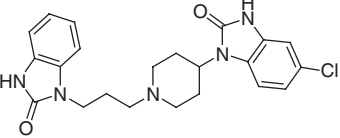
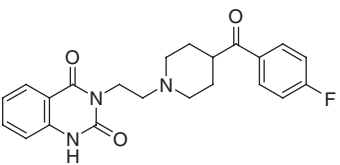
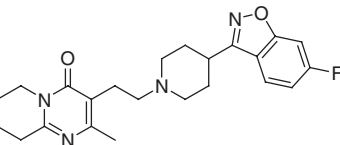
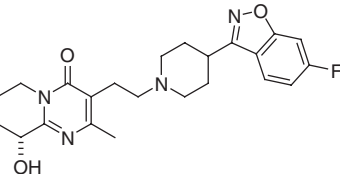
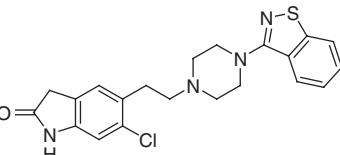
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24 h F – pb – ur – | V/F – CL – Mwt 491.6 PSA 35.6 Å ² log P 5.42 | LIDOFLAZINE Calcium channel blocker, vasodilator Metabolism: N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 54–66 h F – pb >99% ur – | V/F – CL – Mwt 450.6 PSA 15.7 Å ² log P 5.35 | VANOXERINE Dopamine reuptake inhibitor, antiarrhythmic, treatment of cocaine addiction |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 120–199 h F – pb 98% ur 5% | V – CL – Mwt 524.0 PSA 23.5 Å ² log P 6.95 | PENFLURIDOL Antipsychotic Metabolism: N-dealkylation of piperidine to diarylbutyric acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±2 h F 40% pb 95–97% ur 1–2% | V – CL – Mwt 477.0 PSA 43.8 Å ² log P 4.15 | LOPERAMIDE Opioid agonist, antidiarrheal; does not cross bbb Metabolism: N-demethylation, N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18±5 h F 60±18% pb 92±2% ur 1% | V 18±7 CL 12±3 Mwt 375.9 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P 3.76 | HALOPERIDOL Dopamine antagonist, antipsychotic; CYP2D6 inhibitor and inducer Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-dealkylation, dehydration, and oxidation to pyridine, reversible reduction of ketone to alcohol ($t_{1/2}$ 67±51 h, CL 10±5) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25±10 h F 50% pb 90% ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 420.3 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P 4.03 | BROMPERIDOL Antipsychotic Metabolism: similar to haloperidol |

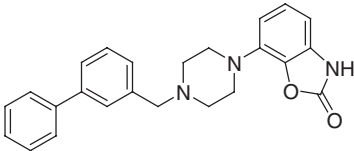
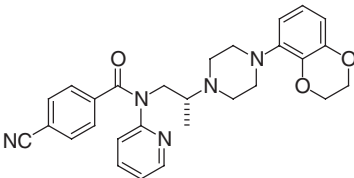
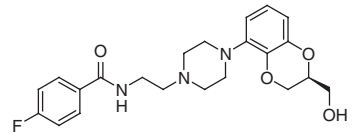
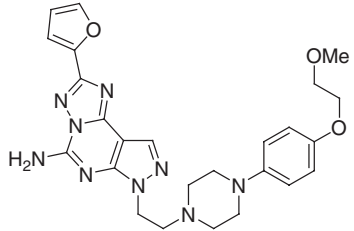
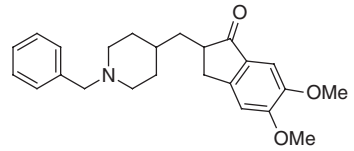
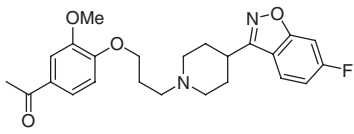
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5±3 h F 45±20% pb >90% ur 0.1% | V 5±2 CL 8±5 Mwt 381.4 PSA 52.7 Å ² log P 3.50 | BENPERIDOL Antipsychotic Metabolism: reversible reduction of ketone to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7–2.2 h* F Low pb 85–90% ur 10%* | V 1.4±0.3 CL 13.9 Mwt 379.4 PSA 52.7 Å ² log P 3.10 | DROPERIDOL *iv Dopamine antagonist, antipsychotic Metabolism: N-dealkylation of tetrahydropyridine; withdrawn in 2001 |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13±5 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 375.5 PSA 66.6 Å ² log P 2.47 | PIPAMPERONE Antipsychotic Metabolism: N-dealkylation of piperidine, N-oxidation, reduction of ketone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4±2 h F 60% pb – ur – | V 14 CL 46 Mwt 263.4 PSA 20.3 Å ² log P 3.76 | MELPERONE Antipsychotic CYP2D6 inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–4.3 h F 30–80% pb 60–80% ur 12–28% | V 1.2–1.6 CL 3.8–9.0 Mwt 307.4 PSA 48.0 Å ² log P 3.13 | BUFLOMEDIL Vasodilator Metabolism: 4-O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6±0.7 h F 17–22% pb – ur – | V – CL 36±9 Mwt 245.4 PSA 20.3 Å ² log P 3.01 | TOLPERISONE Muscle relaxant Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation, reduction of ketone to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6–1.8 h F Low pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 259.4 PSA 20.3 Å ² log P 4.34 | EPERISONE Muscle relaxant Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation |

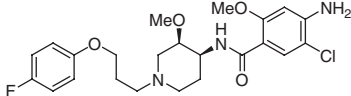
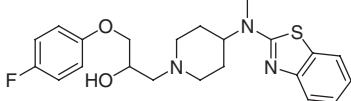
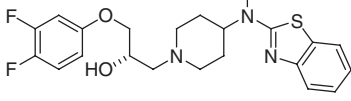
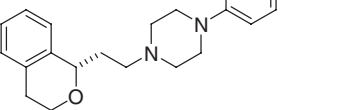
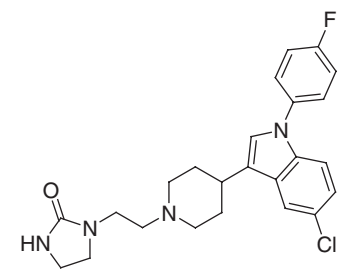
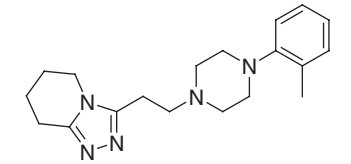
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.7±0.4 h F 50% pb 84±2% ur 6–8% | V 4.0±0.4 CL 13±2 Mwt 336.5 PSA 23.6 Å ² $\log P$ 3.68 | FENTANYL Analgesic, narcotic Metabolism: N-dealkylation of piperidine, amide hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–16 h F 90% pb – ur – | V 3.0 CL 2.6 Mwt 260.3 PSA 41.6 Å ² $\log P$ 0.89 | FENSPIRIDE Bronchodilator Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6±0.2 h F 42±15% pb 92±2% ur <1% | V 0.8±0.3 CL 6.7±2.4 Mwt 416.5 PSA 81.1 Å ² $\log P$ 2.16 | ALFENTANIL Analgesic Metabolism: N-dealkylation of piperidine and aniline |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F – pb – ur – | V 0.46 CL 5.6 Mwt 466.6 PSA 71.8 Å ² $\log P$ 3.30 | TREFENTANIL Analgesic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–10 min F – pb 70% ur Negligible | V 0.3–0.6 CL 36–54 Mwt 376.5 PSA 76.2 Å ² $\log P$ 2.05 | REMIFENTANIL Opioid agonist, anesthetic for iv dosing Metabolite: carboxylic acid ($t_{1/2}$ 2 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.7±1.2 h F 90% pb 93±1% ur 6% | V 1.7±0.6 CL 12.7±2.5 Mwt 386.6 PSA 61.0 Å ² $\log P$ 3.95 | SUFENTANYL Analgesic Metabolism: N-dealkylation of piperidine and aniline, O-demethylation, aromatic hydroxylation |

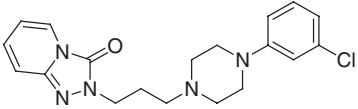
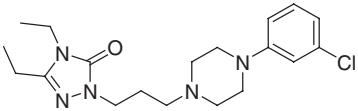
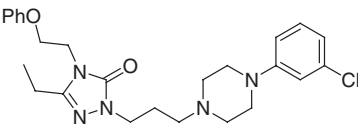
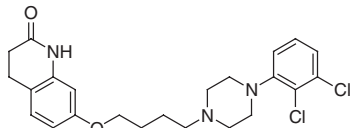
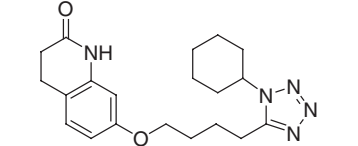
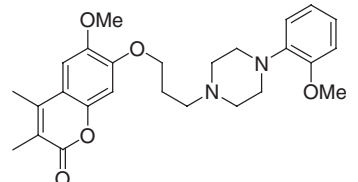
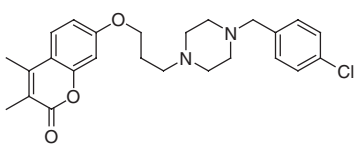
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–12 h F 24–31% pb 72–92% ur <11% | V 5–8 CL 18–26 Mwt 347.5 PSA 48.1 Å ² $\log P$ 2.87 | INDORAMIN Antihypertensive Active metabolite: 6-hydroxylated indole |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–16 h F 12–24% pb 91–93% ur 1.4% | V 3–6 CL 7–10 Mwt 425.9 PSA 67.9 Å ² $\log P$ 4.05 | DOMPERIDONE Dopamine antagonist, antiemetic, does not cross bbb readily Metabolism: aromatic 5-hydroxylation at nonchlorinated arene, oxidative cleavage to 1 <i>H</i> -piperidine and 3-substituted propionic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–14 h F 53% pb 94% ur <4% | V 5–10 CL 6–10 Mwt 395.4 PSA 69.7 Å ² $\log P$ 3.56 | KETANSERIN Serotonin antagonist, antihypertensive Metabolism: reversible reduction of ketone, N-dealkylation of piperidine, aromatic hydroxylation of quinazolinone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.2±0.8 h F 66±28% pb 89% ur 3±2% | V 1.1±0.2 CL 5.4±1.4 Mwt 410.5 PSA 61.9 Å ² $\log P$ 2.68 | RISPERIDONE Antipsychotic, CYP2D6 substrate Metabolism: hydroxylation to paliperidone (see below) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20±3 h F 28% pb 74–77% ur 51–67% | V 7.5 CL – Mwt 426.5 PSA 82.2 Å ² $\log P$ 1.52 | PALIPERIDONE Active metabolite of risperidone Metabolism: N-dealkylation, N–O bond cleavage, oxidation to ketone, aliphatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6±3 h F 45±15% pb >99% ur <1% | V 1.5–2.3 CL 11.7 Mwt 412.9 PSA 76.7 Å ² $\log P$ 4.00 | ZIPRASIDONE Antipsychotic Metabolism: reductive N–S bond cleavage, then S-methylation, oxidation to sulfoxide, N-dealkylation of piperazine |

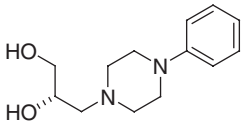
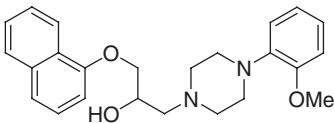
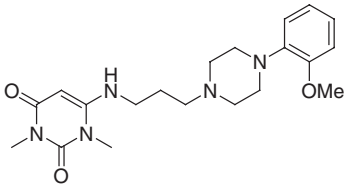
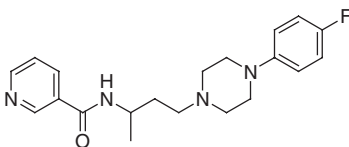
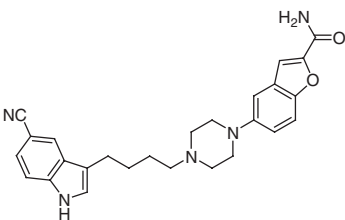
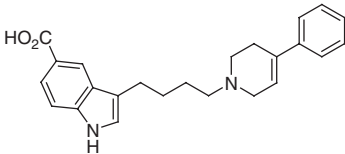
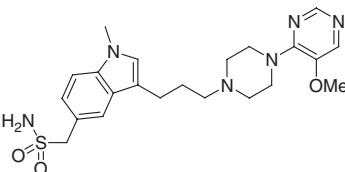
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|---|--|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14.4 h F 54% pb >99% ur 2% | V/F 20 CL – Mwt 385.5 PSA 44.8 Å ² log P 3.39 | BIFEPRUNOX 5-HT _{1A} agonist, antipsychotic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–9 h F – pb >99.5% ur <1% | V 0.4–0.6 CL 0.7–0.8 Mwt 483.6 PSA 81.9 Å ² log P 1.94 | LECOZOTAN 5-HT _{1A} antagonist for treatment of Alzheimer's disease Metabolism: N-dealkylation to eltoprazine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–9 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 415.5 PSA 74.3 Å ² log P 2.36 | FLESINOXAN Antidepressant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1 h* F 4%* pb – ur – | V 2.6** CL 37** Mwt 503.6 PSA 125 Å ² log P 1.45 | PRELADENANT *monkey **rat Adenosin A _{2A} antagonist for treatment of Alzheimer's disease Metabolism: O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 67–83 h F 100% pb 93–96% ur 10% | V 9–13 CL 1.8–2.2 Mwt 379.5 PSA 38.8 Å ² log P 4.71 | DONEPEZIL, E-2020 Acetylcholinesterase inhibitor for treatment of Alzheimer's disease Metabolism: O-dealkylation, 4-hydroxylation of phenyl, N-debenzylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18–33 h F 96% pb 95% ur <1% | V 20–43 CL 12–26 Mwt 426.5 PSA 64.8 Å ² log P 3.81 | ILOPERIDONE Dopamine and serotonin antagonist, antipsychotic Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol, O-demethylation, hydroxylation |

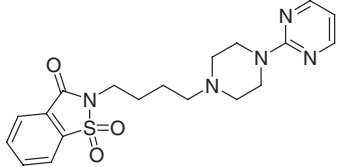
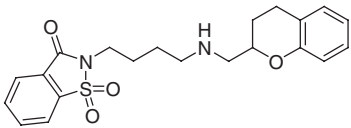
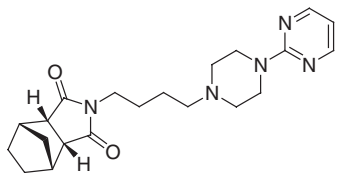
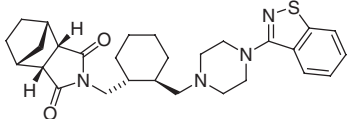
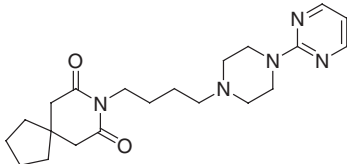
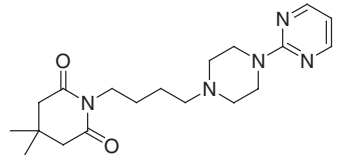
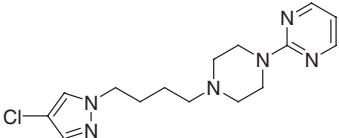
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 7–10 h | V | 2.4 | CISAPRIDE |
| | F | 40–50% | CL | – | Peristaltic stimulant |
| | pb | 98% | Mwt | 466.0 | Metabolism: N-dealkylation of piperidine, hydroxylation of phenoxy, cleavage of fluorophenyl ether, no amide hydrolysis; withdrawn in 2000 for causing cardiac arrhythmias |
| | ur | 1–3% | PSA | 86.1 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 2.83 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 18 ± 10 h | V | – | SABELUZOLE |
| | F | – | CL | 5.1 | Nootropic |
| | pb | 99% | Mwt | 415.5 | Metabolism: 6-hydroxylation of benzothiazole, glucuronidation |
| | ur | <0.5% | PSA | 77.1 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 4.26 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 15–24 h | V | 2.5–3.4 | LUBELUZOLE |
| | F | – | CL | 2.2–3.9 | Neuroprotectant |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 433.5 | Metabolism: 6-hydroxylation of benzothiazole, glucuronidation |
| | ur | – | PSA | 77.1 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 4.69 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 14 h* | V | – | U-101387 |
| | F | 76%* | CL | – | *monkey |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 401.5 | Dopamine D ₄ antagonist |
| | ur | Negligible | PSA | 84.3 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 2.42 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 85–102 h | V | 20 | SERTINDOLE |
| | F | 74% | CL | 3.6 | Antipsychotic |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 440.9 | Metabolism: N-dealkylation of piperidine, dehydrogenation of imidazolinone |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 40.5 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 3.67 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2 h | V | – | DAPIPRAZOLE |
| | F | – | CL | – | α -Adrenergic blocker, antiglaucoma |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 325.5 | |
| | ur | <10% | PSA | 37.2 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 2.89 | |

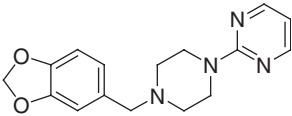
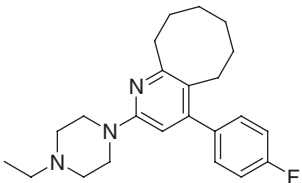
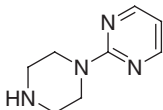
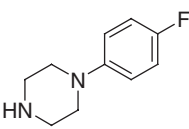
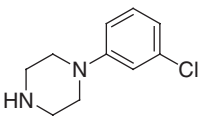
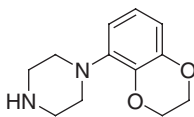

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6.5±1.8 h F 75±30% pb 93% ur <1% | V 1.0±0.3 CL 1.8±0.6 Mwt 371.9 PSA 42.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.76 | TRAZODONE Antidepressant Metabolism: N-oxidation, hydroxylation, N-dealkylation to 1-(3-chlorophenyl)piperazine ($t_{1/2}$ 4–8 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <22 h F – pb – ur Negligible | V – CL – Mwt 377.9 PSA 42.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.74 | ETOPERIDONE Antidepressant Metabolism: similar to metabolism of nefazodone (see below) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–10 h F 15–23% pb 99% ur – | V 0.22–0.87 CL 7.5 Mwt 470.0 PSA 51.6 Å ² $\log P$ 4.09 | NEFAZODONE Antidepressant Metabolism: 1-hydroxylation of ethyl group (to secondary alcohol: $t_{1/2}$ 1.4–6.5 h), deethylation to triazoledione, N-dealkylation of piperazine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 75–146 h F 87% pb 99% ur <1% | V 4.9 CL 0.7 Mwt 448.4 PSA 44.8 Å ² $\log P$ 5.60 | ARIPIPAZOLE Antidepressant, antipsychotic, crosses bbb Metabolism: dehydrogenation of piperidinone, N-dealkylation, N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–21 h F 87–100% pb 95–98% ur <1% | V/F 2.8 CL/F 3 Mwt 369.5 PSA 81.9 Å ² $\log P$ 3.40 | CILOSTAZOL PDE III inhibitor, antithrombotic Metabolites: 4'-trans-hydroxy, 3,4-dehydro |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11–18 h F – pb High ur – | V – CL – Mwt 452.6 PSA 64.4 Å ² $\log P$ 4.29 | ENSACULIN, ANSECULIN, KA-672 Nootropic Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–26 h F 57% pb – ur Negligible | V 2 CL 1.5 Mwt 441.0 PSA 42.0 Å ² $\log P$ 4.13 | PICUMAST Antiallergic Metabolism: N-dealkylation, hydroxylation of 3-CH ₃ , then oxidation to carboxylic acid |

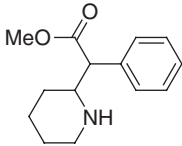
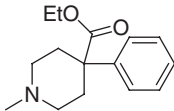
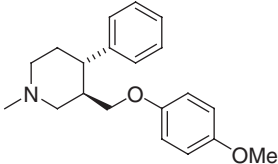
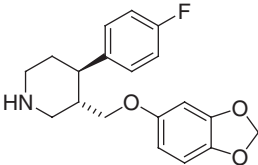
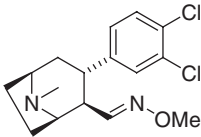
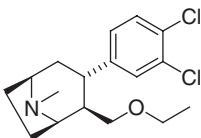
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 75% pb 11–14% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 236.3 PSA 46.9 Å ² log P –0.03 | LEVODROPROPIZINE Antitussive Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.4±3.2 h F 7–30% pb 95–97% ur – | V – CL 11±1.6 Mwt 392.5 PSA 45.2 Å ² log P 4.1 | NAFTOPIDIL Antihypertensive Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, piperazine dealkylation, O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 h F 63–80% pb 75–80% ur 10–15% | V 0.4–0.8 CL 1.8–3.8 Mwt 387.5 PSA 68.4 Å ² log P 1.64 | URAPIDIL Antihypertensive Metabolites: 4-hydroxy-2-methoxyphenyl (inactive, $t_{1/2}$ 6–10 h), <i>N</i> -desmethyl (active, $t_{1/2}$ 10–16 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.5±1.0 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 356.4 PSA 48.5 Å ² log P 2.16 | NIAPRAZINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Metabolism: <i>N</i> -dealkylation, <i>N</i> -oxidation, <i>N</i> -dearylation, aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20–26 h F – pb 96–99% ur 0.2–1.0% | V/F 11–17 CL/F 5.6–6.9 Mwt 441.5 PSA 102 Å ² log P 2.59 | VILAZODONE 5-HT reuptake inhibitor, 5-HT _{1A} agonist, antidepressant Metabolism: hydroxylation to 6-hydroxyindole, then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.5 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 374.5 PSA 56.3 Å ² log P 4.60 | CARMOXIROLE Antihypertensive, dopamine D _{A2} agonist, does not cross bbb readily Metabolite: glucuronide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–10 h F 17% pb – ur 2–4% | V 0.9 CL 6.4 Mwt 458.6 PSA 112 Å ² log P 1.58 | AVITRIPTAN Antimigraine, 5-HT ₁ -receptor agonist Active metabolites: <i>N</i> -desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 11 h), <i>O</i> -desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 5.2 h) |

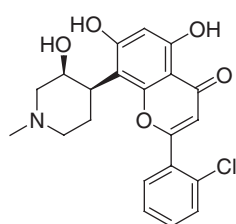
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 h F 10% (dog) pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 401.5 PSA 95.1 Å ² log P 0.97 | IPSAPIRONE Anxiolytic Metabolism: N-dealkylation of piperazine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8–1.8 h* F – pb – ur – | V 0.2 CL 2.2 Mwt 400.5 PSA 84.1 Å ² log P 2.85 | REPINOTAN *iv 5-HT _{1A} agonist, neuroprotectant, crosses bbb Metabolism: chroman 6-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2–1.4 h F Low pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 383.5 PSA 69.6 Å ² log P 1.09 | TANDOSPIRONE Anxiolytic, antidepressant Metabolism: hydroxylation of pyrimidine and norbornane, N-dealkylation of piperazine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–18 h F 9–19% pb >99% ur 0.1% | V 95 CL 60 Mwt 492.7 PSA 85.0 Å ² log P 4.52 | LURASIDONE Antipsychotic Metabolism: N-dealkylation, hydroxylation of norbornane, S-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–11 h F 4% pb 95% ur <1% | V 5.3±2.6 CL 28–45 Mwt 385.5 PSA 69.6 Å ² log P 1.59 | BUSPIRONE Anxiolytic Metabolism: hydroxylation of pyrimidine at position 5 and α to the carbonyl groups, N-dealkylation of piperazine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3±2 h F 15% pb – ur – | V 4.8 CL – Mwt 359.5 PSA 69.6 Å ² log P 1.06 | GEPIRONE Anxiolytic Metabolism: as buspirone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–6 h F 10% (dog) pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 320.8 PSA 45.2 Å ² log P 2.68 | LESOPITRON Anxiolytic Metabolism: pyrimidine 5-hydroxylation |

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|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–7 h F 10% pb – ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 298.3 PSA 50.7 Å ² log P 2.43 | PIRIBEDIL Dopamine agonist, vasodilator Metabolism: acetal hydrolysis to catechol, pyrimidine hydroxylation to 4-hydroxypyrimidine, N-oxidation of pyrimidine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±4 h F – pb >99.7% ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 367.5 PSA 19.4 Å ² log P 6.03 | BLONANSERIN 5-HT _{2A/D2} antagonist, atypical antipsychotic Metabolism: hydroxylation at (CH ₂) ₂ CH ₂ (CH ₂) ₂ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6±2 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 164.2 PSA 41.1 Å ² log P 0.49 | 1-(2-PYRIMIDINYL)PIPERAZINE Active metabolite of ipsapirone, gepirone, tandospirone, buspirone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–8 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 180.2 PSA 15.3 Å ² log P 1.44 | 1-(4-FLUOROPHENYL)PIPERAZINE Active metabolite of niaprazine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–6 h F 12–84% pb – ur – | V 2.5 CL 6.1 Mwt 196.7 PSA 15.3 Å ² log P 1.74 | 1-(3-CHLOROPHENYL)PIPERAZINE Recreational drug, causes headaches Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, oxidative degradation of piperazine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–9 h F 100% pb 15% ur 40% | V 3.5 CL 8 Mwt 220.3 PSA 33.7 Å ² log P 0.86 | ELTOPRAZINE 5-HT _{1/2C} agonist, serenic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ variable F 75% pb 60–70% ur 20% | V – CL – Mwt 86.1 PSA 24.1 Å ² log P –1.50 | PIPERAZINE Anthelmintic Metabolites: N-nitroso, N-nitroso-3-hydroxy |

| | | | |
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.9–3.5 h F 11–52% pb 10–33% ur <1% | V 6 CL 0.78–4.8 Mwt 233.3 PSA 38.3 Å ² log P 2.31 | METHYLPHENIDATE CNS stimulant, crosses bbb Metabolism: ester hydrolysis to ritalinic acid, oxidation to lactam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F 50–60% pb 65–75% ur 1–25% | V 4.4±0.9 CL 17±5 Mwt 247.33 PSA 29.5 Å ² log P 2.19 | MEPERIDINE, PETHIDINE Analgesic, narcotic; Metabolism: N-demethylation (to normeperidine, $t_{1/2}$ 14–21 h), hydrolysis of ester, aromatic 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–27 h F 5–10% pb – ur <2% | V – CL – Mwt 311.4 PSA 21.7 Å ² log P 3.89 | FEMOXETINE Antidepressant (SRI); high first-pass effect Metabolism: N- and O-demethylation, aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17±3 h F 50% pb 95% ur <2% | V 17±10 CL/ F 8.6±3.2 Mwt 329.4 PSA 39.7 Å ² log P 3.70 | PAROXETINE Antidepressant; CYP2D6 substrate and inhibitor Metabolism: O-demethylation, then O-methylation (COMT), O-dearylation to hydroxymethylpiperidine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24 h F 0.8%* pb – ur 0% | V 46* CL 32* Mwt 327.3 PSA 24.8 Å ² log P 3.15 | BRASOFENSINE *monkey Dopamine reuptake inhibitor for treatment of Parkinson's disease Metabolism: <i>E</i> to <i>Z</i> isomerization of oxime, N- and O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8 d F >90% pb – ur – | V 8.6 CL 0.5–0.6 Mwt 328.3 PSA 12.5 Å ² log P 3.94 | TESOFENSINE Monoamine reuptake inhibitor; appetite suppressant Active metabolite: N-desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 14 d) |

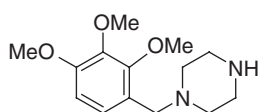
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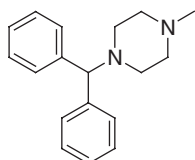
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|-----------|------------|-------|----------------------|-----------------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 5.2 h (iv) | V | 1.5 | FLAVOPIRIDOL |
| F | 20% (rat) | CL | 6.1 | Antineoplastic |
| pb | 94% | Mwt | 401.8 | Metabolism: glucuronidation |
| ur | — | PSA | 90.2 \AA^2 | |
| | | log P | 1.93 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; COMT, catechol-O-methyltransferase; GABA, γ -aminobutyric acid; 5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine; PDE, phosphodiesterase; sc, subcutaneous.

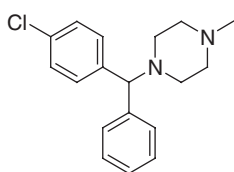
Table 46.2 (Arylalkyl)piperazines and -piperidines. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .



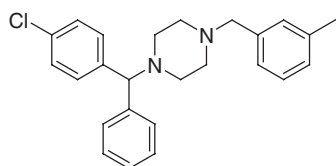
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 6 h | V | 4.6 | TRIMETAZIDINE |
| F | 89% | CL | 0.9 | Antianginal |
| pb | 16% | Mwt | 266.3 | Metabolism: O-demethylation |
| ur | 62% | PSA | 43.0 \AA^2 | |
| | | log P | -0.19 | |



| | | | | |
|-----------|--------|-------|----------------------|--|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 7–24 h | V | 16 ± 3 | CYCLIZINE |
| F | 75% | CL | 0.2 | Antiemetic |
| pb | 60% | Mwt | 266.4 | Duration of action: 5 ± 1 h |
| ur | <1% | PSA | 6.48 \AA^2 | Metabolism: N-demethylation to inactive norcyclizine ($t_{1/2}$ 20 h, pb 59%) |
| | | log P | 2.47 | |



| | | | | |
|-----------|------|-------|----------------------|--|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 12 h | V | — | CHLORCYCLIZINE |
| F | — | CL | — | Histamine H_1 antagonist |
| pb | — | Mwt | 300.8 | Metabolism: N-demethylation to norchlorcyclizine |
| ur | — | PSA | 6.48 \AA^2 | ($t_{1/2}$ 6–9 d, pb 88%) |
| | | log P | 3.24 | |

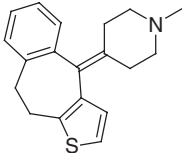
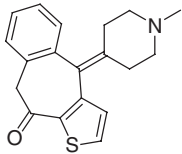
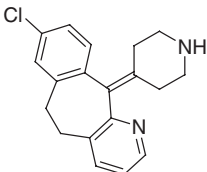
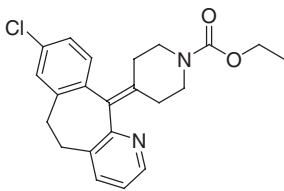
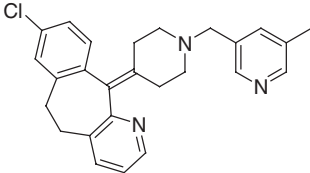
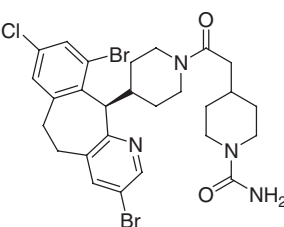


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| $t_{1/2}$ | 6 h | V | — | MECLIZINE, MECLOZINE |
| F | 22% (dog) | CL | — | Histamine H_1 antagonist, antiemetic |
| pb | — | Mwt | 391.0 | Metabolism: N-debenzylation |
| ur | — | PSA | 6.48 \AA^2 | |
| | | log P | 5.28 | |

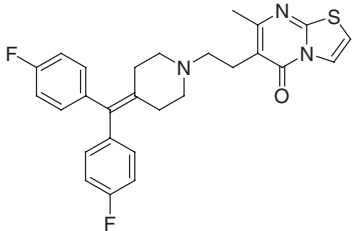
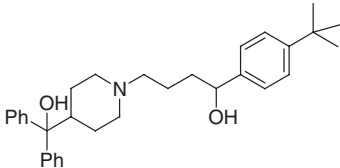
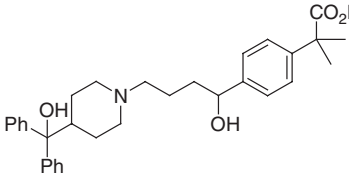
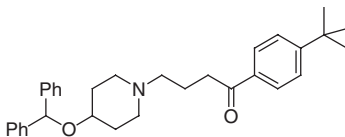
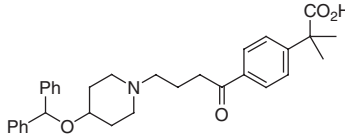
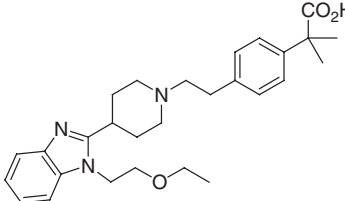
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 5±2 h F 75–100% pb 91% ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 368.5 PSA 6.48 Å ² $\log P$ 5.03 | CINNARIZINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist, antiemetic Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation, N-oxidation, piperazine dealkylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 17–19 d F 85% pb 90% ur <0.2% | V 43–78 CL 6.8 Mwt 404.5 PSA 6.48 Å ² $\log P$ 5.59 | FLUNARIZINE Ca channel blocker, antimigraine Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation (cinnamyl group), N-oxidation, piperazine dealkylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 55±16 d F 70% pb 99.5% ur – | V 15 CL 4±2 Mwt 477.6 PSA 69.2 Å ² $\log P$ 6.11 | ALMITRINE Respiratory stimulant Metabolism: dihydroxylation of vinyl groups, deallylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 42–56 h F >95% pb 84% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 559.7 PSA 61.8 Å ² $\log P$ 3.45 | INCB 9471 CC chemokine receptor 5 (CCR5) antagonist, antiviral (HIV) Metabolism: O-deethylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 28–33 h F 89–100%* pb 84% ur 4% | V 12 CL 5.4 Mwt 533.6 PSA 61.8 Å ² $\log P$ 2.00 | VICRIVIROC *monkey CCR5 antagonist, antiviral (HIV) Metabolism: N-oxidation of pyrimidine, conversion of pyrimidine to pyrazole-N-oxide, O-demethylation, ring opening of piperazine by N-dealkylation, benzylic C–N bond cleavage, oxidation of CH ₂ OMe to CO ₂ H |

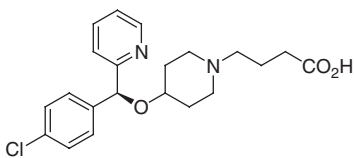
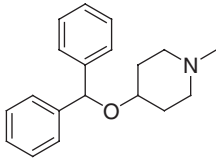
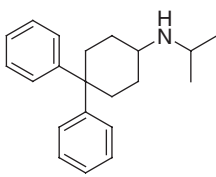
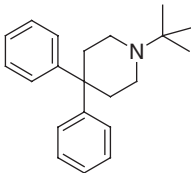
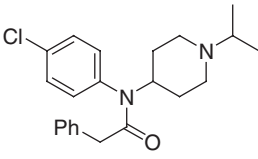
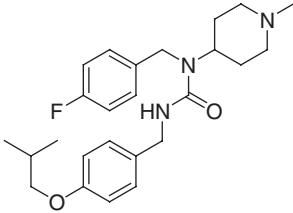
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 17±3 h F – pb 91–98% ur <0.1% | V 37±4 CL – Mwt 426.6 PSA 38.8 Å ² log P 4.34 | OXATAMIDE Histamine H ₁ antagonist, antiemetic Metabolism: N-dealkylation, aromatic hydroxylation of benzimidazolone |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7–20 h F – pb 93% ur 0.8% | V 16±3 CL 13±4 Mwt 374.9 PSA 35.9 Å ² log P 2.32 | HYDROXYZINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist, antipruritic Main metabolite: cetirizine (see below) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 9±2 h F 60–70% pb 93% ur 65±5% | V 0.5–0.8 CL 0.6–1.2 Mwt 388.9 PSA 53.0 Å ² log P 1.62 | CETIRIZINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist, antipruritic Duration of action: 18±6 h Metabolism: O-dealkylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 25 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 268–350 CL 108–158 Mwt 527.6 PSA 48.8 Å ² log P 4.30 | ZOSUQUIDAR P-Glycoprotein inhibitor, adjunct antineoplastic Metabolism: N-oxidation and hydroxylation of quinoline |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1–4 h F – pb 96–99% ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 287.4 PSA 3.2 Å ² log P 5.1 | CYPROHEPTADINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist, antipruritic Metabolites: quaternary glucuronide, N-desmethyl, epoxide |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 9–12 h F – pb Low ur 20% | V – CL – Mwt 290.4 PSA 16.1 Å ² log P 3.5 | AZATADINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist, antipruritic |

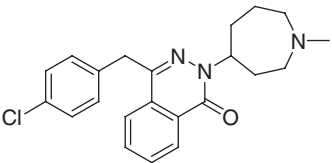
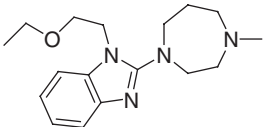
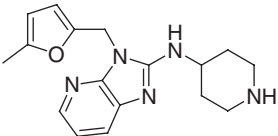
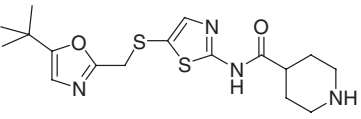
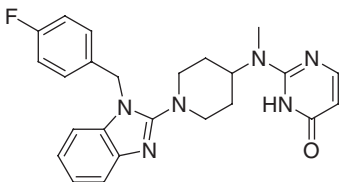
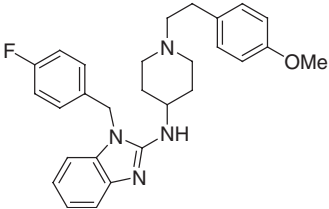
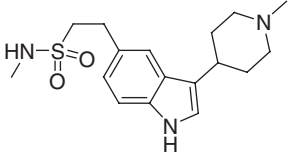
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 23 h F 78% pb 91% ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 295.4 PSA 31.5 Å ² log P 2.71 | PIZOTYLINE, PIZOTIFEN 5-HT antagonist for migraine prophylaxis Main metabolite: <i>N</i> -glucuronide ($t_{1/2}$ 23 h, V 1 l kg ⁻¹) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18±7 h F 50% pb 75% ur 1%* | V 56 CL – Mwt 309.4 PSA 48.6 Å ² log P 2.19 | KETOTIFEN *10% of <i>N</i> -desmethyl metabolite; histamine H ₁ antagonist, antipruritic Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation, <i>N</i> -oxidation, <i>N</i> -glucuronidation, reduction of keto group Active metabolite: desmethyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18±6 h F High pb 73–87% ur 0% | V 49 CL – Mwt 310.8 PSA 24.9 Å ² log P 3.5 | DES LorATADINE Metabolite of loratadine (see below) Metabolism: 3-hydroxylation of pyridine, then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±6 h F – pb 97% ur – | V 120±80 CL 142±57 Mwt 382.9 PSA 42.4 Å ² log P 4.6 | LORATADINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Duration of action: 24 h Metabolism: hydrolysis of carbamate to desloratadine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h F 50% pb >95% ur 0% | V 143 CL – Mwt 416.0 PSA 29.0 Å ² log P 6.11 | RUPATADINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist, antipruritic Metabolism: piperidine <i>N</i> -dealkylation to desloratadine, then 3-hydroxylation of pyridine to 3-hydroxydesloratadine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–11 h F 30–70% pb – ur <0.02% | V – CL/ F 3–6 Mwt 638.8 PSA 79.5 Å ² log P 5.03 | LONAFARNIB Farnesyltransferase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolism: hydroxylation at CH ₂ NCONH ₂ , then elimination of H ₂ O |

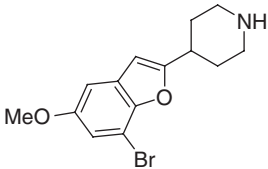
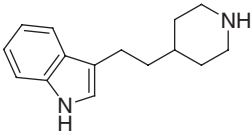
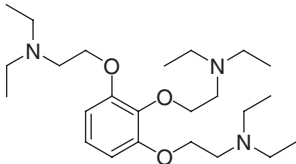
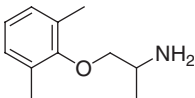
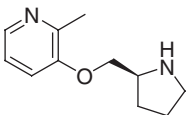
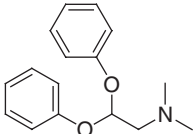
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 43±13 h F 75–83% pb >98% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 477.6 PSA 61.2 Å ² $\log P$ 5.20 | RITANSERIN 5-HT ₂ antagonist, anxiolytic, antidepressant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ – F <1%* pb 97% ur Negligible | V – CL 1133 Mwt 471.7 PSA 43.7 Å ² $\log P$ 5.62 | TERFENADINE Nonsedating histamine H ₁ antagonist, prodrug of fexofenadine (see below) *fexofenadine on oral dosing of terfenadine: 70% Other metabolism: N-dealkylation of piperidine; withdrawn in 1998 for causing cardiac arrhythmias |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12±5 h F 33% pb 60–70% ur 19±7% | V 5.4–5.8 CL/F 9±2 Mwt 501.7 PSA 81.0 Å ² $\log P$ 3.73 | FEXOFENADINE Nonsedating histamine H ₁ antagonist, <i>P</i> -gp substrate, metabolite of terfenadine (see above) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–20 h F – pb 98% ur 1.3–1.8% | V – CL – Mwt 469.7 PSA 29.5 Å ² $\log P$ 6.81 | EBASTINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Metabolism: hydroxylation of <i>tert</i> -butyl, N-dealkylation of piperidine Main active metabolite: carebastine (see below) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17±10 h F – pb 98% ur 85±10% | V 1.4–2.2 CL 14–15 Mwt 499.6 PSA 66.8 Å ² $\log P$ 4.93 | CAREBASTINE Metabolite of ebastine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–14 h F 25–69%* pb 85% ur 33% | V 0.5 CL 4.6 Mwt 463.6 PSA 62.7 Å ² $\log P$ 5.06 | BILASTINE *animals Histamine H ₁ antagonist; no metabolism in humans |

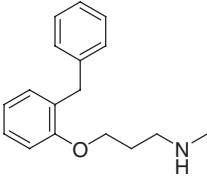
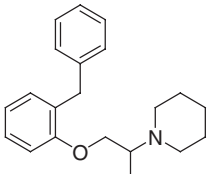
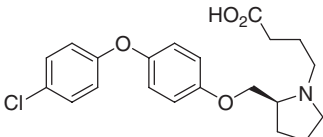
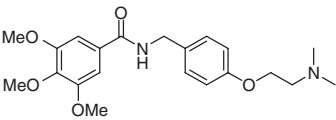
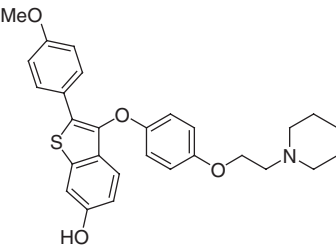
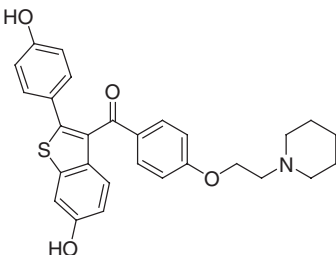
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.3–3.3 h F >80% pb 55% ur >70% | V – CL – Mwt 388.9 PSA 62.7 Å ² log P 3.67 | BEPOTASTINE Nonsedating histamine H ₁ antagonist Metabolism: piperidine N-dealkylation, oxidative degradation of side chain, ether cleavage to benzylic alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 32±8 h F – pb >99% ur 2–7% | V – CL – Mwt 281.4 PSA 12.5 Å ² log P 3.43 | DIPHENYLPYRALINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Metabolites: N-oxide, N-desmethyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 h* F – pb 90% ur Low | V – CL – Mwt 293.5 PSA 12.0 Å ² log P 5.53 | PRAMIVERINE *monkey Antispasmodic Metabolism: N-dealkylation, hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 31 h F 47% pb 96% ur 20% | V 2.7 CL – Mwt 293.5 PSA 3.24 Å ² log P 4.98 | BUDIPINE Antiparkinsonian Metabolites: 4-hydroxyphenyl ($t_{1/2}$ 59 h), N-oxide, alcohol (hydroxylation of <i>tert</i> -butyl) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±2 h F 1–65%* pb 80±5% ur <2% | V 6.4±2.4 CL 17.5±2.8 Mwt 370.9 PSA 23.6 Å ² log P 3.62 | LORCAINIDE *dose dependent Antiarrhythmic Active metabolite: N-desisopropyl ($t_{1/2}$ 27±8 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 55 h F >43% (rat) pb 95% ur – | V – CL 5.9–8.5 Mwt 427.6 PSA 44.8 Å ² log P 4.67 | PIMAVANSERIN, ACP-103 5-HT _{2a} inverse agonist |

(continued overleaf)

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 22±4 h F 82% pb 83±5% ur 2–7% | V 14.5 CL 9±3 Mwt 381.9 PSA 35.9 Å ² log P 3.47 | AZELASTINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Metabolites: 6-hydroxy (para to carbonyl group), <i>N</i> -desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 54±15 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–7 h F 46–90% pb – ur 3.6% | V – CL 21 Mwt 302.4 PSA 33.5 Å ² log P 2.78 | EMEDASTINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist; eye drops Metabolism: aromatic 5- and 6-hydroxylation, <i>N</i> -oxidation of diazepane |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–28 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 311.4 PSA 67.9 Å ² log P 1.18 | NOBERASTINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–18 h (iv) F 4–33% pb – ur – | V 1.5–8.4 CL – Mwt 380.5 PSA 134 Å ² log P 2.79 | SNS-032 Cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–13 h F 58±8% pb 98% ur <0.5% | V 1.0–1.4 CL 1.2 Mwt 432.5 PSA 65.8 Å ² log P 3.63 | MIZOLASTINE Nonsedating histamine H ₁ antagonist Metabolism: glucuronidation, sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 d F 95% pb 97% ur 0% | V/F 250 CL 11 Mwt 458.6 PSA 42.3 Å ² log P 5.52 | ASTEMIZOLE Nonsedating histamine H ₁ antagonist, does not cross bbb Active metabolite: <i>O</i> -desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 7–20 d); withdrawn in 1999 because of affinity to hERG |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 h F 63–74% pb 20–31% ur 50% | V 2.4 CL 6.6 Mwt 335.5 PSA 73.6 Å ² log P 1.35 | NARATRIPTAN Antimigraine, 5-HT _{1A,B,D,F} agonist Metabolite: <i>N</i> -oxide |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–15 h F 90% pb 98% ur <1% | V 4.3–6.0 CL 4.3–4.8 Mwt 310.2 PSA 34.4 Å ² log P 3.65 | BROFAROMINE Antidepressant, MAO inhibitor Metabolism: O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10 h F – pb – ur 3% | V – CL – Mwt 228.3 PSA 27.8 Å ² log P 3.27 | INDALPINE Antidepressant (SSRI) Metabolism: oxidation to 2-piperidinone ($t_{1/2}$ 12 h) |
| <p>$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; hERG, human ether-à-go-go-related gene; MAO, monoamine oxidase; SSRI, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor.</p> | | | |
| Table 46.3 Aryloxyalkylamines. V in l kg ⁻¹ ; CL in ml min ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹ ; Mwt in g mol ⁻¹ . | | | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.3–2.7 h F – pb 30–70% ur 85–100% | V 0.21–0.24 CL 1.2–1.6 Mwt 423.6 PSA 37.4 Å ² log P 2.58 | GALLAMINE Muscle relaxant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±2 h F 87±13% pb 63±3% ur 4–15% | V 4.9±0.5 CL 6±3 Mwt 179.3 PSA 12.7 Å ² log P 2.6 | MEXILETINE Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation, benzylic hydroxylation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ – F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 192.3 PSA 34.2 Å ² log P 1.41 | POZANICLINE Nicotinic acetylcholine agonist, nootropic, neuroprotective |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2±1 h F 21% pb – ur 0.3% | V 14±6 CL 18±3 Mwt 257.3 PSA 21.7 Å ² log P 2.52 | MEDIFOXAMINE Antidepressant Metabolism: N-demethylation, N-oxidation, oxidation to diphenoxylacetic acid |

(continued overleaf)

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.3 h F 48% pb 95% ur <1% | V 8 CL – Mwt 269.4 PSA 21.3 Å ² $\log P$ 4.19 | BIFEMELANE Nootropic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–5 h F 92% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 309.5 PSA 12.5 Å ² $\log P$ 5.15 | BENPROPERINE Antiussive Metabolites: 4-piperidinol, 3-piperidinol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9 h F >80%* pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 389.9 PSA 59.0 Å ² $\log P$ 4.63 | DG-051 *monkey Leukotriene A ₄ hydrolase inhibitor Metabolism: N-oxidation, aromatic hydroxylation (ortho to Cl) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–9 h F 56–62% pb – ur 30–50% | V – CL – Mwt 388.5 PSA 69.3 Å ² $\log P$ 1.26 | TRIMETHOBENZAMIDE Dopamine antagonist, antiemetic Metabolite: N-oxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 30–50 h F 5%* pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 475.6 PSA 79.4 Å ² $\log P$ 7.78 | ARZOXIFENE *monkey Estrogen receptor modulator for treatment of osteoporosis Metabolism: glucuronidation, O-demethylation; development discontinued |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 28 h F 2% pb 99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 473.6 PSA 98.2 Å ² $\log P$ 4.57 | RALOXIFENE Antiosteoporotic Metabolism: glucuronidation |

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| | $t_{1/2}$ 28±11 h F 6% pb 96–99% ur <1% | V 15±4 CL 6 Mwt 470.6 PSA 52.9 Å ² $\log P$ 6.59 | BAZEDOXIFENE Estrogen receptor modulator for treatment of osteoporosis Metabolism: glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 25±12 d F 46±22% pb 100% ur 0% | V 66±44 CL 1.9±0.4 Mwt 645.3 PSA 42.7 Å ² $\log P$ 7.82 | AMIODARONE Antiarrhythmic, antithyroid Metabolites: <i>N</i> -desethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 61 d), iodide |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7 h F – pb – ur – | V 13 CL – Mwt 703.4 PSA 69.0 Å ² $\log P$ 8.00 | BUDIODARONE Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: ester hydrolysis |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 24–30 h F 15–20% pb >98% ur 0% | V 19–22 CL – Mwt 556.8 PSA 97.2 Å ² $\log P$ 7.58 | DRONEDARONE Antiarrhythmic Main metabolite: <i>N</i> -desbutyl ($t_{1/2}$ 20–25 h) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ – F 80% pb 99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 405.9 PSA 57.2 Å ² $\log P$ 2.55 | MORCLOFONE Cough suppressant |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 23% pb 65% ur – | V 3.4 CL 3.3–4.8 Mwt 467.6 PSA 61.9 Å ² $\log P$ 4.14 | TIROPRAMIDE Antispasmodic Metabolism: <i>N</i> -deethylation, <i>N</i> -depropylation |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|---|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 14–17 h F 6–11% pb 95–96% ur <3% | V 7–10 CL 13–17 Mwt 643.8 PSA 132 Å ² log P 4.77 | SATAVAPTAN, SR 121463 Vasopressin antagonist; discontinued because of low F (high first-pass metabolism). |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 91±56 h F 60%* pb – ur – | V 6.5* CL/ F 8±4 Mwt 433.6 PSA 21.7 Å ² log P 6.76 | MOFAROTENE *dog Arotinoid for cancer prevention |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7 d F 60%* pb 90–100% ur – | V 22 CL 1.6 Mwt 457.6 PSA 30.9 Å ² log P 6.21 | CENTCHROMAN, ORMELOXIFEN *rat Estrogen receptor modulator, contraceptive Metabolism: O-demethylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6 d F 60% pb >99% ur <2% | V 13 CL 1 Mwt 413.6 PSA 32.7 Å ² log P 6.51 | LASOFOXIFENE Estrogen receptor modulator for treatment of osteoporosis Metabolism: sulfation, glucuronidation, oxidation of pyrrolidine, catechol formation followed by O-methylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 d F >90% pb – ur – | V >60 CL – Mwt 406.0 PSA 12.5 Å ² log P 5.85 | CLOMIPHENE Mixture of isomers; enclomiphene shown; gonad-stimulating principle Metabolism: N-deethylation, aromatic 4-hydroxylation |

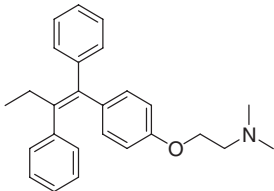
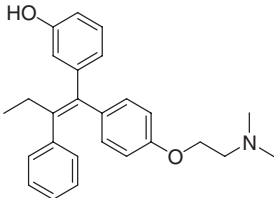
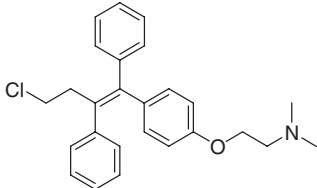
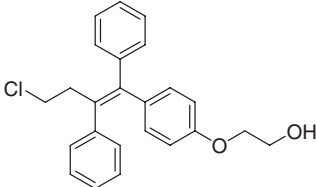
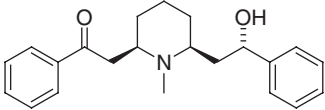
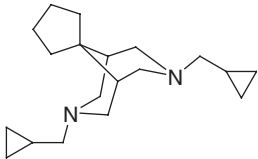
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|--|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±4 d F 25–100% pb >98% ur <1% | V/F 55±5 CL/F 1.4 Mwt 371.5 PSA 12.5 Å ² $\log P$ 5.13 | TAMOXIFEN Antiestrogen, antineoplastic Metabolites: 4-hydroxyphenyl (vicinal to ethyl group), N-desmethyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 d F 80% pb – ur <1% | V 7 CL 32±4 Mwt 387.5 PSA 32.7 Å ² $\log P$ 7.30 | DROLOXIFENE Antineoplastic Metabolites: glucuronide, N-desmethyl, N-oxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–7 d F 100% pb 99.7% ur – | V 7–10 CL 1 Mwt 406.0 PSA 12.5 Å ² $\log P$ 4.77 | TOREMIFENE Antineoplastic Metabolites: 4-hydroxy, N-desmethyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 30 h F – pb 93–98% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 378.9 PSA 29.5 Å ² $\log P$ 4.43 | OSPEMIFENE Metabolite of toremifene; treatment of postmenopausal osteoporosis and urogenital atrophy |

Table 46.4 Piperidines and related compounds. V in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

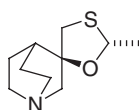
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|---|--|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–5 h F Low pb – ur <0.5% | V – CL – Mwt 337.5 PSA 40.5 Å ² $\log P$ 3.61 | LOBELINE Respiratory stimulant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–13 h F 50% pb 96% ur 84% (iv) | V 1 CL 3–4 Mwt 288.5 PSA 6.48 Å ² $\log P$ 3.67 | TEDISAMIL Potassium channel blocker, bradycardic, antiarrhythmic Metabolism: hydroxylation |

(continued overleaf)

C#CCOC12CC3CC4CC1(CCN4C3)CC2

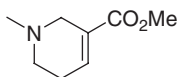
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|-----------|------|---------|---------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 3 h | V | 2–5 |
| F | 90% | CL | – |
| pb | – | Mwt | 165.2 |
| ur | >86% | PSA | 12.5 Å ² |
| | | log P | 0.92 |

TALSACLIDINE
Muscarinic agonist



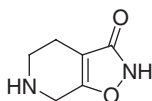
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 3–6 h | V | 6 |
| F | – | CL | – |
| pb | <20% | Mwt | 199.3 |
| ur | 16% | PSA | 37.8 \AA^2 |
| | | log P | 2.44 |

CEVIMELINE
Muscarinic agonist,
parasympathomimetic
Metabolism: glucuronidation,
oxidation to sulfoxide, *N*-oxide



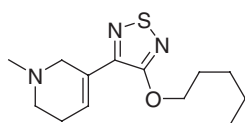
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|-----------|----------|---------|----------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 0.2 h | V | 2.6 |
| F | Low | CL | 170 |
| pb | — | Mwt | 155.2 |
| ur | 0.3–0.4% | PSA | 29.5 \AA^2 |
| | | log P | −0.20 |

ARECOLINE
Anthelmintic, cathartic
Metabolism: N-oxidation,
hydrogenation of alkene, ester
hydrolysis, then conjugation with
glycine



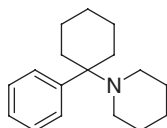
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|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 1.5–2.0 h | V | – |
| F | 84–93% | CL | 6.9 |
| pb | <2% | Mwt | 140.1 |
| ur | 50–60% | PSA | 50.4 Å ² |
| | | log P | 0.71 |

GABOXADOL
Hypnotic
Metabolism: O-glucuronidation



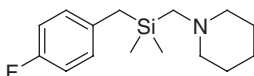
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|-----------|-------|---------|---------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 3.6 h | V | – |
| F | <1% | CL | – |
| pb | – | Mwt | 281.4 |
| ur | – | PSA | 66.5 Å ² |
| | | log P | 4.28 |

XANOMELINE
Muscarinic agonist, crosses bbb;
cholinergic, nootropic
Metabolites: *N*-oxide, *N*-desmethyl



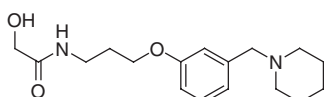
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|-----------|--------|---------|----------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 7–51 h | V | 6.2 |
| F | 50–90% | CL | 5.4 |
| pb | 60–70% | Mwt | 243.4 |
| ur | 9–10% | PSA | 3.24 \AA^2 |
| | | log P | 4.25 |

PHENCYCLIDINE
Anesthetic, hallucinogenic
Metabolism: piperidine
4-hydroxylation, cyclohexane
hydroxylation, piperidine ring
opening by N-dealkylation



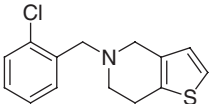
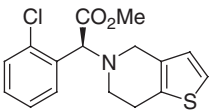
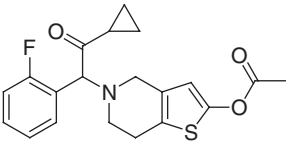
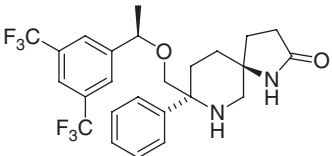
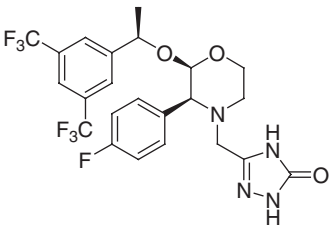
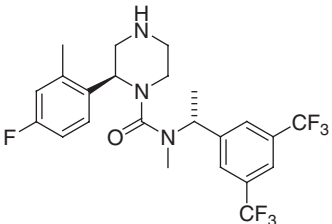
| | | | |
|-----------|---------|---------|----------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 12–16 h | V | – |
| F | – | CL | – |
| pb | 86–95% | Mwt | 265.4 |
| ur | – | PSA | 3.24 \AA^2 |
| | | log P | 4.51 |

SILPERISONE
Muscle relaxant, crosses bbb

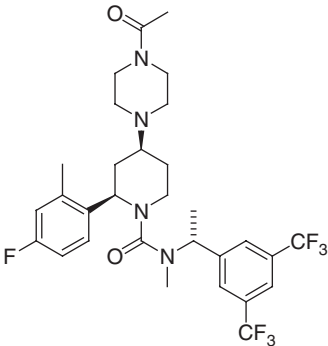
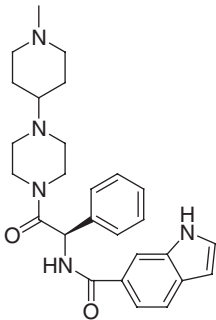


| | | | |
|-----------|--------|---------|----------------------|
| $t^{1/2}$ | 7–8 h | V | 3.2 |
| F | >95% | CL | 5–7 |
| pb | 5–7% | Mwt | 306.4 |
| ur | 55–60% | PSA | 61.8 \AA^2 |
| | | log P | 1.77 |

ROXATIDINE
Histamine H₂ antagonist;
roxatidine is dosed as the acetate
ester prodrug

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13–33 h F 80–90% pb 98% ur 2% | V – CL – Mwt 263.8 PSA 31.5 \AA^2 log P 3.23 | TICLOPIDINE Antithrombotic Metabolism: oxidation to 2-hydroxythiophene, S-oxidation, then dimerization; may lead to neutro- and thrombocytopenia |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5 h* F – pb 98% ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 321.8 PSA 57.8 \AA^2 log P 4.23 | CLOPIDOGREL *acid: 8 h Platelet inhibitor, antithrombotic Metabolism: hydrolysis of ester, oxidation of thiophene to 2-thiophenone, then hydrolysis of thioester |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–15 h* F 70–80%* pb 98%* ur 0% | V 0.7–1.1* CL 29–43* Mwt 373.4 PSA 74.8 \AA^2 log P 3.17 | PRASUGREL *deacetylated metabolite on oral dosing of prasugrel Platelet inhibitor Further metabolism: thiolactone hydrolysis, then S-methylation and conjugation with cystein |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 180 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 500.5 PSA 50.4 \AA^2 log P 4.01 | ROLAPITANT NK ₁ antagonist |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–13 h F 60–65% pb >95% ur <5% | V 1 CL 0.9–1.3 Mwt 534.4 PSA 75.2 \AA^2 log P 4.23 | APREPITANT NK ₁ antagonist, antiemetic Metabolism: oxidation of morpholine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11 h* F 71%* pb – ur – | V – CL 15* Mwt 491.5 PSA 35.6 \AA^2 log P 5.58 | GW597599 *dog NK ₁ antagonist |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|------------|-------|---------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 9–15 h | V | – | CASOPITANT |
| | F | 34% (dog) | CL | – | NK ₁ antagonist, antiemetic, |
| | pb | High | Mwt | 616.6 | anxiolytic, antidepressant |
| | ur | Negligible | PSA | 47.1 Å ² | Metabolism: hydroxylation, |
| | | | log P | 5.59 | N-deacetylation, N-dealkylations |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 25 h | V | – | LY-517717 |
| | F | 25–82%* | CL | – | *animals |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 459.6 | Factor Xa inhibitor, antithrombotic |
| | ur | – | PSA | 71.7 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 3.14 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; NK₁, neurokinin 1.

47

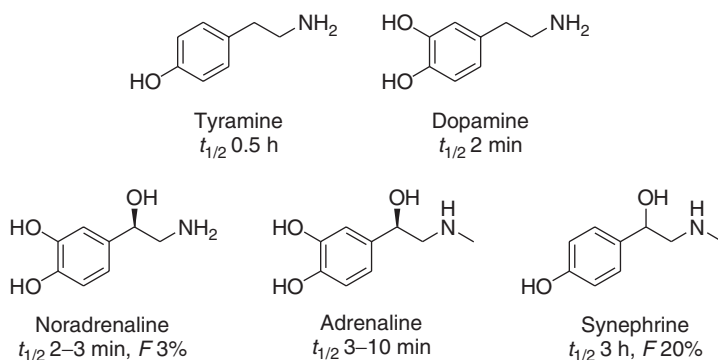
Phenethylamines (2-Phenylethylamines)

The phenethylamine substructure can be found in numerous natural products and drugs. Depending on the precise substitution pattern, phenethylamines show different biological effects and have been used in various therapeutic areas, for example, as central nervous system (CNS) agents (stimulants, antidepressants, and appetite suppressants), cardiovascular agents, or antianginals (Tables 47.1 and 47.2).

47.1

Biological Activity of Phenethylamines

Phenethylamines with hydroxyl or bioequivalent groups, being structurally related to dopamine and adrenaline (epinephrine), are agonists or antagonists at dopamine, adrenaline, or serotonin receptors or have an effect on the metabolism or transport of these natural neurotransmitters (Scheme 47.1).



Scheme 47.1 Natural phenethylamines.

Phenethylamines devoid of hydroxyl groups usually have little affinity for adrenaline or dopamine receptors, but they may interact with monoamine oxidase (MAO) and the neuronal transport system for catecholamines. This interaction can enhance the levels of dopamine and noradrenaline in the CNS. Such nonphenolic phenethylamines, for example, amphetamine, are called

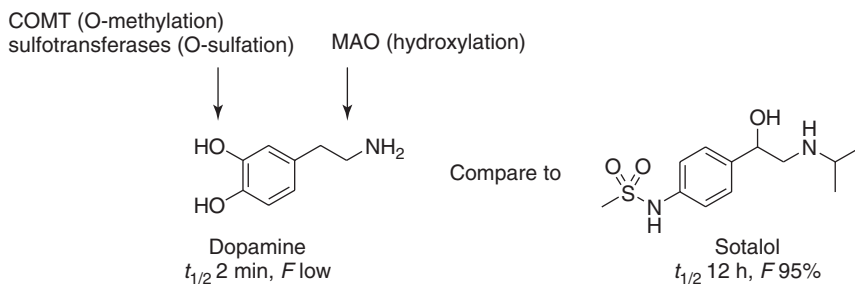
“indirectly acting sympathomimetic drugs,” and their biological effects include CNS stimulation, attention enhancement, appetite suppression, and suppression of fatigue. Adrenaline agonists of low oral bioavailability have been developed for the treatment of glaucoma (as eye drops) or asthma (for inhalation).

47.2

Metabolism

Most natural small molecules present in the human body are metabolized rapidly by substrate-specific enzymes. Therefore, natural metabolites, such as natural amino acids, peptides, carbohydrates, steroids, or eicosanoids, tend to show poor pharmacokinetics and are not well suited as building blocks for drugs, unless short half-lives are the aim (as in prodrugs).

This is also true for most natural phenethylamines. In particular, those with a catechol (*o*-dihydroxyphenol) substructure have short plasma half-lives, because enzymes quickly degrade these compounds. Catecholamines (2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)ethylamines) are rapidly methylated at the phenolic 3-hydroxyl group by catechol-*O*-methyltransferase (COMT) or converted into *O*-sulfates by the sulfotransferases present in the gut wall (Scheme 47.2). Phenethylamines devoid of a benzylic hydroxyl group are oxidatively deaminated by MAO (α -hydroxylation of *N*-alkylamines followed by hydrolysis of the resulting hemiaminals). MAO can also be found in the epithelial mucosa of the intestine and can, therefore, contribute significantly to the first-pass metabolization, and strongly diminish oral bioavailability. Many *N,N*-dimethyl or *N,N*-diethyl phenethylamines are quickly *N*-dealkylated *in vivo* by MAO. Phenethylamines with an unsubstituted phenyl group may also be hydroxylated at the latter by liver enzymes (CYP 450 (cytochrome P450)).



Scheme 47.2 Metabolism of dopamine.

Metabolization by COMT will *not* occur in phenethylamines devoid of a catechol substructure, and oxidation by MAO may be slowed by bulky *N*-alkyl groups (isopropyl, *tert*-butyl), by alkyl groups at the ethylene chain (e.g., α -methylation), or by heteroatoms or hydroxyl groups at the benzylic position or close to the nitrogen atom.

Most phenethylamines devoid of phenolic OH groups can cross the blood–brain barrier. CNS penetration and absorption from the gastrointestinal (GI) tract may

be enhanced by increasing lipophilicity or by lowering the polar surface area (PSA). Oral bioavailability may also be enhanced by reducing the number of rotatable bonds.

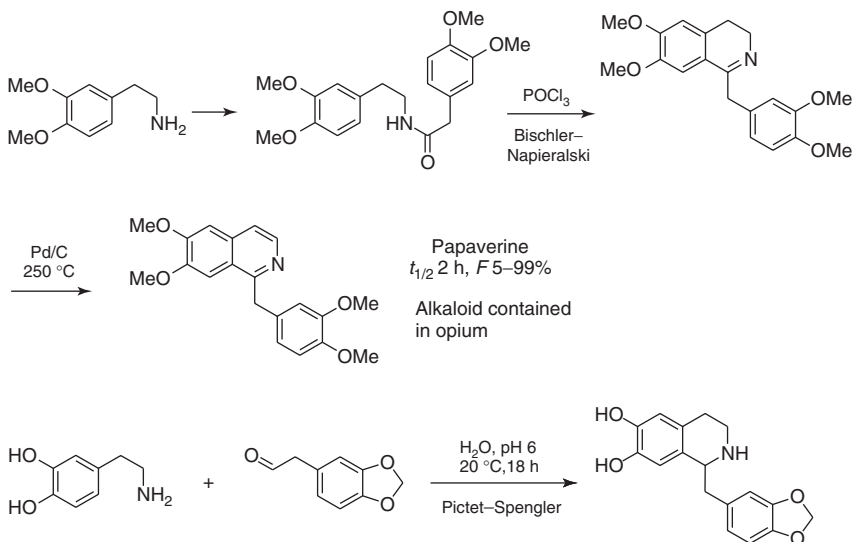
As for most basic drugs, the rate of renal excretion can be strongly enhanced if the urine is rendered acidic, for example, by administration of ammonium chloride to the patient. When metabolism by MAO and COMT has been blocked, renal excretion of the unchanged drug will often become half-life determining.

47.3

Tetrahydroisoquinolines and Related Compounds

Opium, the dried juice of the unripe seed capsules of the poppy plant, *Papaver somniferum*, contains mainly two groups of alkaloids: the phenanthrene derivatives (10% morphine, 0.5% codeine, and 0.2% thebaine) and the 2-benzylisoquinoline derivatives (6% noscapine and 1% papaverine). However, other plants also produce alkaloids with an isoquinoline substructure, and more than 500 benzylisoquinoline alkaloids have been isolated to date. Many of these are biologically active and have been used in medicine directly or as leads for the development of synthetic analogs with improved selectivity or therapeutic index. Interestingly, although plants produce these compounds mainly as a defense against herbivores, isoquinoline alkaloids show a broad spectrum of pharmacological properties (Table 47.3).

Isoquinolines and tetrahydroisoquinolines can be readily synthesized from phenethylamines with the Pictet–Spengler and Bischler–Napieralski reactions (Scheme 47.3).

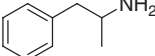
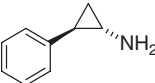
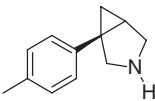
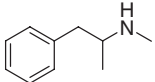
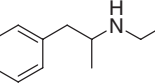
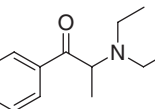


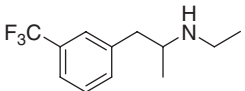
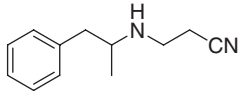
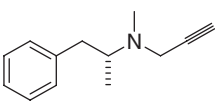
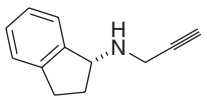
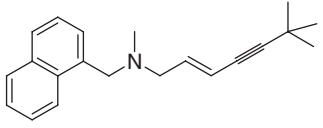
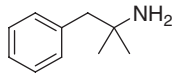
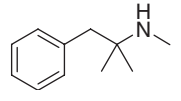
Scheme 47.3 Synthesis of isoquinolines and tetrahydroisoquinolines.

Further Reading

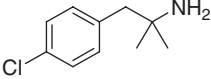
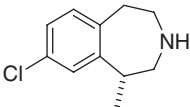
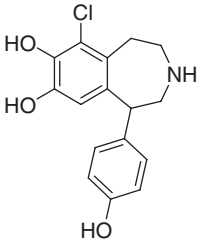
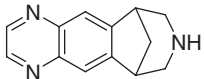
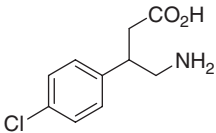
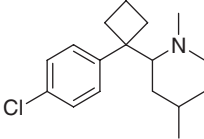
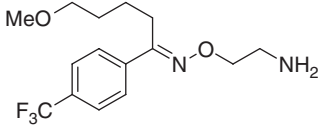
- (a) Sneader, W. (2001) The discovery and synthesis of epinephrine. *Drug News Perspect.*, **14**, 491–494; (b) Sneader, W. (2001) Epinephrine analogues. *Drug News Perspect.*, **14**, 539–543.
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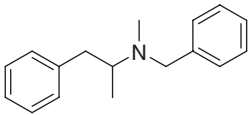
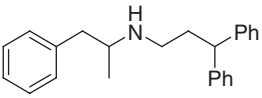
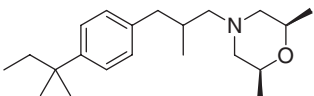
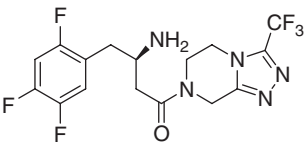
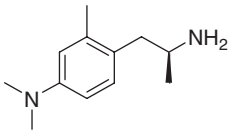
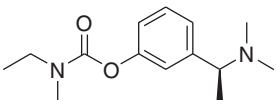
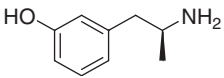
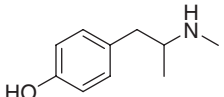
Table 47.1 Phenethylamines and related compounds. *V* in l/kg; *CL* in ml min^{−1} kg^{−1}; *Mwt* in g/mol.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 18 h <i>F</i> 20–25% <i>pb</i> 15–40% <i>ur</i> 20–30% | <i>V</i> 3–6 <i>CL</i> 9.7 <i>Mwt</i> 135.2 <i>PSA</i> 26.0 Å ² <i>log P</i> 1.5 | AMPHETAMINE CNS-stimulant, anorexic Metabolism: benzylic and aromatic 4-hydroxylation <i>N</i> -Lys-amphetamine: <i>t</i> _{1/2} 0.5 h |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 1–2 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> 2.7 <i>CL</i> 14 <i>Mwt</i> 133.2 <i>PSA</i> 26.0 Å ² <i>log P</i> 1.4 | TRANLYCYPROMINE (racemic) Irreversible MAO inhibitor, antidepressant, CYP2A6 inhibitor; Metabolism: <i>N</i> -acetylation, hydroxylation |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 1.6 h <i>F</i> >89% <i>pb</i> 95–97%* <i>ur</i> 0% | <i>V</i> / <i>F</i> 1.58±0.32 <i>CL</i> / <i>F</i> 15 <i>Mwt</i> 173.3 <i>PSA</i> 12.0 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.15 | BICIFADINE *monkey; NMDA antagonist, 5-HT/norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor, analgesic Metabolism: oxidation to lactam (CHCH ₂ NH to CHCONH), oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H, then acyl glucuronidation |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 6–21 h <i>F</i> 60–70% <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> 30% | <i>V</i> 3–5 <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 149.2 <i>PSA</i> 12.0 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.1 | METHAMPHETAMINE CNS-stimulant, anorexic Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation, benzylic and aromatic 4-hydroxylation; withdrawn in 1973 for risk of abuse |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 5 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> 45% | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 163.3 <i>PSA</i> 12.0 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.71 | ETHYLAMPHETAMINE CNS-stimulant, anorexic Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 2 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> <5% | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 205.3 <i>PSA</i> 20.3 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.6 | DIETHYLPROPION, DIETHYLCATHINONE, AMFEPRAMONE Anorexic; Metabolism: <i>N</i> -deethylation, reduction of ketone, oxidative degradation, and conjugation to hippuric acid |

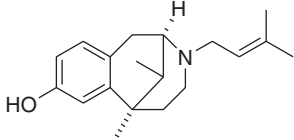
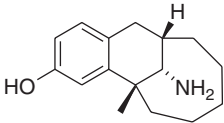
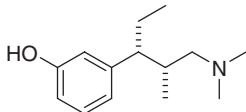
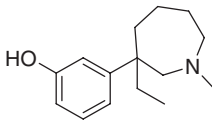
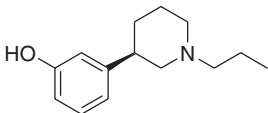
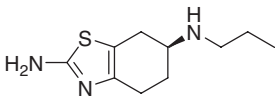
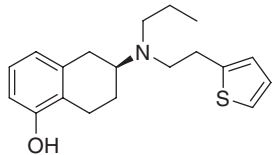
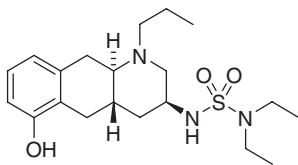
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|---|--|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–30 h F 60–70% pb 30% ur 13±6% | V 8–10 CL 11 Mwt 231.3 PSA 3.4 Å ² log P 3.5 | FENFLURAMINE Anorexic; Metabolism: N-deethylation, N-oxidation and nitron-forming; withdrawn in 1997 because of risk of heart valve damage |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F – pb – ur 5–9% | V – CL – Mwt 188.3 PSA 35.8 Å ² log P 2.04 | FENPROPOREX CNS-stimulant, anorexic Metabolism: N-decyanoethylation, aromatic 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2±1 h F 4.4% pb 94% ur Negligible | V 1.9 CL/ F 1500 Mwt 187.3 PSA 3.2 Å ² log P 2.7 | SELEGILINE, DEPRENYL Irreversible MAO inhibitor, antidepressant; Metabolism: N-demethylation, depropargylation, benzylic and aromatic 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3±0.7 h F 36% pb 60–70% ur <1% | V 3.7 CL 24 Mwt 171.2 PSA 12.0 Å ² log P 2.27 | RASAGILINE MAO inhibitor, antiparkinsonian Metabolism: N-depropargylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 19–36 h F 40% pb >99% ur Negligible | V >30 CL – Mwt 291.4 PSA 3.24 Å ² log P 5.58 | TERBINAFINE Antifungal; Metabolism: N-demethylation, hydroxylation of <i>tert</i> -butyl, oxidation of <i>tert</i> -butyl to carboxyisopropyl, N-de(naphthyl)methylation (to naphthaldehyde and naphthoic acid) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24±8 h F – pb 96% ur 70–80% | V 3–4 CL – Mwt 149.2 PSA 26 Å ² log P 2.3 | PHENTERMINE Anorexic; Metabolism (rat): N-hydroxylation, aromatic 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17–18 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 163.3 PSA 12 Å ² log P 2.6 | MEPHENTERMINE Anorexic; Metabolism: N-demethylation |

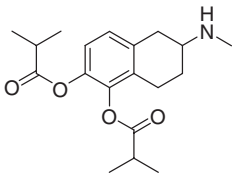
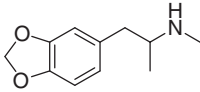
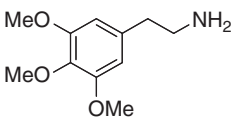
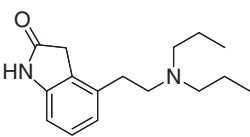
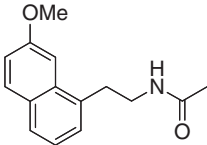
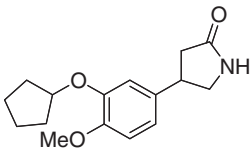
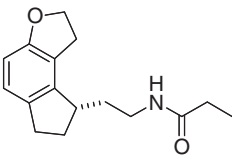
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|---|--|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 41 h F – pb – ur 17% | V – CL – Mwt 183.7 PSA 26 Å ² log P 2.8 | CHLORPHENTERMINE Anorexic; Metabolism: N-oxidation to N-hydroxy, nitroso, nitro |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±2 h F >90% pb 70% ur <1% | V/F 2.7 CL – Mwt 195.7 PSA 12.0 Å ² log P 2.89 | LORCASERIN 5-HT _{2C} agonist for treatment of obesity; Metabolites: N-sulfate ($t_{1/2}$ 41±10 h), N-carbamoyl glucuronide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10 min F 5–7% pb 88% ur <1% | V 0.23–0.66 CL 25–38 Mwt 305.8 PSA 72.7 Å ² log P 2.06 | FENOLDOPAM Dopamine agonist, antihypertensive Metabolism: O-sulfation, O-methylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–58 h F High pb <20% ur 92% | V 6.4 CL – Mwt 211.3 PSA 37.8 Å ² log P 0.74 | VARENICLINE Nicotinic agonist for treatment of nicotine addiction Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-formylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–7 h F 95% pb 30% ur 70–80% | V 0.84 CL 2.6 Mwt 213.7 PSA 63.3 Å ² log P 0.78 | BACLOFEN Muscle relaxant, GABA agonist; Metabolism: deamination to 4-hydroxy-3-arylbutyric acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–20 h F – pb 97% ur 0% | V 10.6* CL 35* Mwt 279.8 PSA 3.2 Å ² log P 5.1 | SIBUTRAMINE *rat Anorexic; Metabolism: N-demethylation; monodesmethyl: $t_{1/2}$ 14 h; didesmethyl: $t_{1/2}$ 16 h; withdrawn 2010 for cardiovascular risk |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–30 h F 50–60% pb 77% ur 3% | V 20–25 CL 15.2 Mwt 318.3 PSA 56.8 Å ² log P 3.71 | FLUVOXAMINE 5-HT reuptake inhibitor, antidepressant; Metabolism: oxidation of CH ₂ OMe to CO ₂ H, N-acetylation, replacement of NH ₂ by OH |

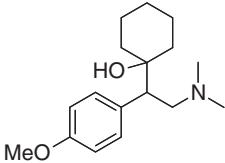
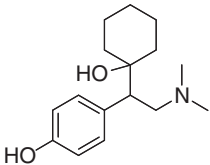
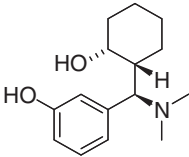
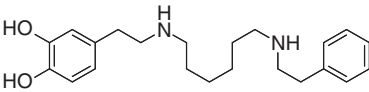
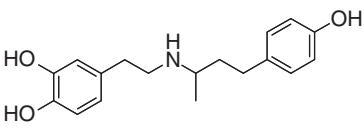
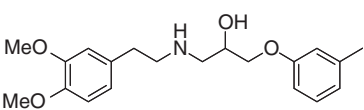
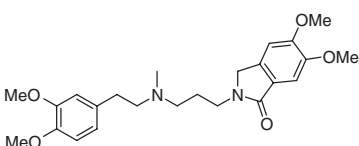
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|---|--|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24±8 h F – pb 75–99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 239.4 PSA 3.2 Å ² log P 3.9 | BENZPHETAMINE Anorexic; Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation, N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14 h F 15% pb 97% ur <0.1% | V – CL – Mwt 329.5 PSA 12 Å ² log P 5.7 | PRENYLAMINE Coronary vasodilator Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation, N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ – F 70%* pb High ur – | V – CL – Mwt 317.5 PSA 12.5 Å ² log P 5.73 | AMOROLFINE *rat, dog Topical antifungal |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–14 h F 87% pb 38% ur 79% | V 3 CL – Mwt 407.3 PSA 77.0 Å ² log P 1.30 | SITAGLIPTIN DPPIV inhibitor, antidiabetic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–12 h F – pb – ur 0.2% | V 4.2–8.4 CL 7–14 Mwt 192.3 PSA 29.3 Å ² log P 1.93 | AMIFLAMINE Antidepressant, MAO-inhibitor Metabolism: N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 35–72% pb 40% ur 0% | V 0.7–3.2 CL 5.2–20 Mwt 250.3 PSA 32.8 Å ² log P 2.14 | RIVASTIGMINE Nootropic, crosses bbb Metabolism: hydrolysis of carbamate, N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.5–4.0 h F 90–100% pb – ur – | V – CL 1.8±0.3 Mwt 151.2 PSA 46.3 Å ² log P 1.11 | GEPEFRINE Sympathomimetic, antihypotensive |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.8 h F 20% pb – ur 3% | V – CL – Mwt 165.2 PSA 32.3 Å ² log P 1.8 | PHOLEDRINE α-Adrenergic agonist, antihypotensive, metabolite of methamphetamine |

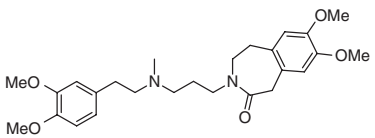
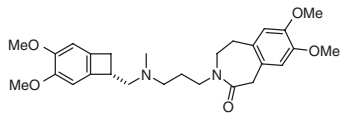
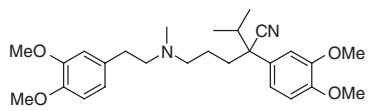
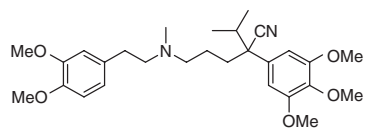
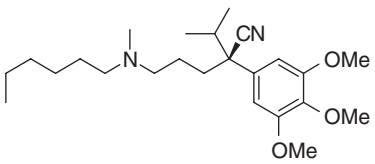
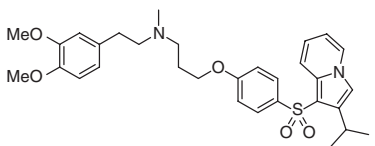
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.6±1.0 h <i>F</i> 47±15% pb 65% ur 15±7% | <i>V</i> / <i>F</i> 7.1±1.4 CL/ <i>F</i> 17±5 Mwt 285.4 PSA 23.5 Å ² log <i>P</i> 4.15 | PENTAZOCINE Analgesic; Metabolism: allylic oxidation of CH ₃ to CH ₂ OH and CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5±0.3 h <i>F</i> – pb – ur <1% | <i>V</i> 11–12 CL 50 Mwt 245.4 PSA 46.3 Å ² log <i>P</i> 3.68 | DEZOCINE Analgesic; Metabolism: O-glucuronidation, N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h <i>F</i> 32±7% pb 20% ur 3% | <i>V</i> 8.3±1.5 CL 24±3 Mwt 221.3 PSA 23.5 Å ² log <i>P</i> 3.02 | TAPENTADOL Opiate agonist, analgesic Metabolism: glucuronidation, sulfation, N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2±1 h <i>F</i> 9% pb 27% ur 0% | <i>V</i> 5 CL 30 Mwt 233.4 g/mol PSA 23.5 Å ² log <i>P</i> 3.40 | MEPTAZINOL Opioid analgesic Metabolism: glucuronidation, oxidation to lactam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.0–2.5 h* <i>F</i> 4% pb – ur – | <i>V</i> – CL – Mwt 219.3 PSA 23.5 Å ² log <i>P</i> 2.74 | PRECLAMOL *im Dopamine D ₂ agonist, antipsychotic; Metabolism: O-sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–14 h <i>F</i> 90% pb – ur 90% | <i>V</i> 7.0–7.3 CL 0.11 Mwt 211.3 PSA 79.2 Å ² log <i>P</i> 1.42 | PRAMIPEXOLE Antiparkinsonian |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 h <i>F</i> 0.5%* pb 92% ur – | <i>V</i> 2.3 CL – Mwt 211.3 PSA 53.7 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.6 | ROTIGOTINE *37% transdermal Dopamine agonist, antiparkinsonian; high first-pass effect; Metabolism: N-dealkylation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–17 h <i>F</i> 100% pb 90% ur – | <i>V</i> 1.5 CL – Mwt 395.6 PSA 81.3 Å ² log <i>P</i> 4.12 | QUINAGOLIDE Dopamine D ₂ agonist for treatment of elevated levels of prolactin; Metabolites: glucuronides, sulfates, N-desethyl, N-bis-desethyl |

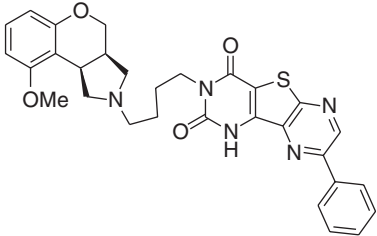
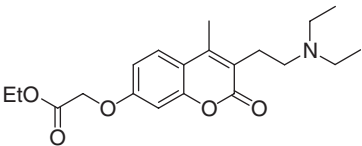
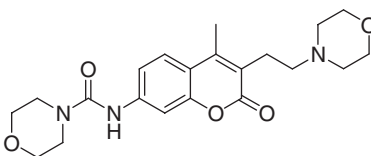
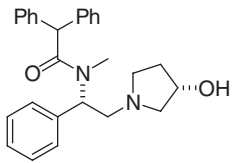
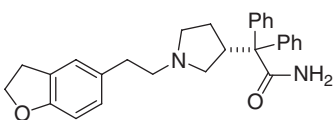
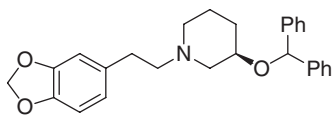
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|---|--|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 333.4 PSA 64.6 Å ² log P 1.97 | NOLOMIROLE Dopamine D ₂ and α_2 adrenergic agonist for treatment of congestive heart failure |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–9 h F – pb 20% ur 20% | V 6–7 CL – Mwt 193.2 PSA 30.5 Å ² log P 2.1 | 3,4-METHYLENEDIOXY- METHAMPHETAMINE, MDMA, ECSTASY Recreational drug Metabolism: hydrolysis of acetal |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h F – pb – ur 58% | V – CL – Mwt 211.3 PSA 53.7 Å ² log P 0.6 | MESCALINE 5-HT _{2A} agonist, natural hallucinogenic; Metabolism: oxidation to arylacetic and benzoic acids, O-demethylation, N-acetylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–10 h F 55% pb 10–39% ur <5% | V 7.5 CL 6–12 Mwt 260.4 PSA 32.3 Å ² log P 2.49 | ROPINIROLE Dopamine agonist, antiparkinsonian, crosses bbb; Metabolism: N-depropylation, aromatic 7-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F <5% pb 95% ur 0.01% (iv) | V 0.54 CL 17 Mwt 243.3 PSA 38.3 Å ² log P 2.27 | AGOMELATINE Antidepressant; Metabolism: O-demethylation, aromatic 3-hydroxylation (<i>meta</i> to amidoethyl) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8 h F 74% pb – ur – | V 0.5 CL 6.1 Mwt 275.3 PSA 47.6 Å ² log P 2.00 | ROLIPRAM Antidepressant; only the <i>R</i> (–) isomer is active Metabolism: O-dealkylation, cyclopentyl 2- and 3-hydroxylation, pyrrolidone 5-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8–2.6 h F 0.5–12% pb 82% ur <0.1% | V 2 CL 13 Mwt 259.3 PSA 38.3 Å ² log P 2.29 | RAMELTEON, TAK-375 Melatonin MT ₁ /MT ₂ agonist Metabolism: hydroxylation of ethyl group, benzylic hydroxylation |

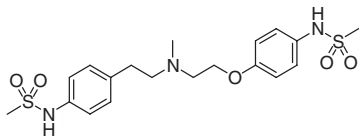
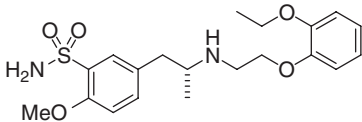
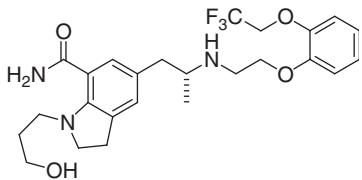
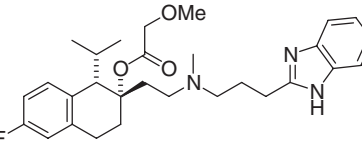
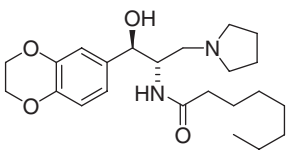
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| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.9±2.4 h <i>F</i> 10–60% <i>pb</i> 27±2% <i>ur</i> 4.6±3% | <i>V</i> / <i>F</i> 8±4 <i>CL</i> / <i>F</i> 22±10 <i>Mwt</i> 277.4 <i>PSA</i> 32.7 Å ² <i>log P</i> 3.3 | VENLAFAXINE Antidepressant, serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor, racemate Metabolism: N- and O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10±4 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> 30±12% <i>ur</i> 29±7% | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 263.4 <i>PSA</i> 43.7 Å ² <i>log P</i> 3.3 | O-DESMETHYL- VENLAFAXINE Main active metabolite of venlafaxine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h <i>F</i> 82% <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> 40–50% | <i>V</i> 1.5 <i>CL</i> 4.9 <i>Mwt</i> 249.4 <i>PSA</i> 43.7 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.00 | CIRAMADOL Analgesic; Metabolite: phenolic glucuronide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7 min <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> 36 <i>Mwt</i> 356.5 <i>PSA</i> 64.5 Å ² <i>log P</i> 3.23 | DOPEXAMINE Cardiotoxic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 min <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> 0.2 <i>CL</i> 60 <i>Mwt</i> 301.4 <i>PSA</i> 72.7 Å ² <i>log P</i> 3.1 | DOBUTAMINE Cardiotoxic, usually given as continuous infusion (iv) Metabolism: glucuronidation, O-methylation of catechol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–2.0 h <i>F</i> 60% <i>pb</i> >95% <i>ur</i> <1% | <i>V</i> 1.5 <i>CL</i> 4.4–6.9 <i>Mwt</i> 345.4 <i>PSA</i> 60.0 Å ² <i>log P</i> 3.00 | BEVANTOLOL Antianginal, antihypertensive, antiarrhythmic Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation, oxidation of CCH ₃ to CCH ₂ OH and CCO ₂ H, then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> 88% <i>ur</i> 14% (iv) | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> 17±2 <i>Mwt</i> 428.5 <i>PSA</i> 60.5 Å ² <i>log P</i> 1.48 | FALIPAMIL Calcium channel blocker Metabolism: N-demethylation |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|-------|---------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2–3 h | V | – | ZATEBRADINE |
| | F | 50% | CL | – | Antianginal |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 456.6 | Metabolism: N- and |
| | ur | 12% | PSA | 60.5 Å ² | O-demethylation |
| | | | log P | 4.48 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2–11 h | V | 1.4 | IVABRADINE |
| | F | 40±10% | CL | 6.2 | Antianginal |
| | pb | 70% | Mwt | 468.6 | Metabolism: N-demethylation |
| | ur | 4% | PSA | 60.5 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 3.69 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 4.0±1.5 h | V | 5.0±2.1 | VERAPAMIL |
| | F | 22±8% | CL | 15±6 | Antihypertensive, |
| | pb | 90±2% | Mwt | 454.6 | antianginal, |
| | ur | <3% | PSA | 64.0 Å ² | antiarrhythmic, CYP3A4 |
| | | | log P | 4.5 | substrate; active |
| | | | | | metabolite: N-desmethyl |
| | | | | | ($t_{1/2}$ 9±3 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.5–8.0 h | V | 2.1 | GALLOPAMIL |
| | F | 15–23% | CL | 6–17 | Antianginal; Metabolism: |
| | pb | 93% | Mwt | 484.6 | O-demethylation, |
| | ur | <2% | PSA | 73.2 Å ² | N-dealkylation |
| | | | log P | 3.83 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 13 h | V | – | NEXOPAMIL |
| | F | 23% | CL | 26–67 (dog) | Calcium channel blocker, 5-HT ₂ |
| | pb | 95–97% | Mwt | 404.6 | antagonist, antihypertensive |
| | ur | – | PSA | 54.7 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 4.45 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 5±3 h | V | – | FANTOFARONE |
| | F | – | CL | – | Calcium channel blocker; |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 550.7 | antihypertensive |
| | ur | – | PSA | 77.9 Å ² | Metabolite: N-desmethyl |
| | | | log P | 5.06 | ($t_{1/2}$ 4±1 h) |

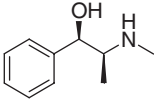
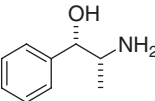
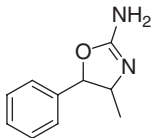
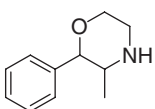
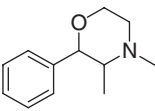
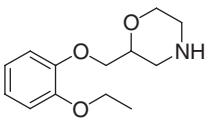
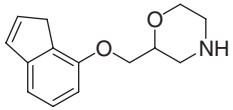
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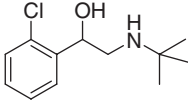
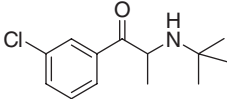
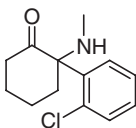
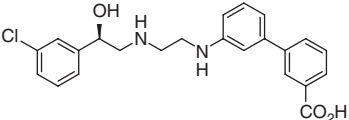
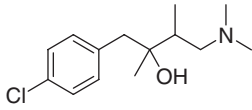
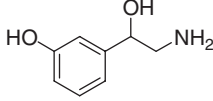
| | | | |
|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–16 h F – pb – ur <1% | V/F 3.6–14.2 CL/F 4.4–10.9 Mwt 555.7 PSA 125 Å ² $\log P$ 4.39 | FIDUXOSIN α_1 -Adrenoceptor antagonist for treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia; orally available |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8 h* F 25–30% pb – ur 20%* | V 0.4* CL – Mwt 361.4 PSA 65.1 Å ² $\log P$ 3.70 | CARBOCROMEN *acid Vasodilator Metabolite: carboxylic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–4 h F 67–79% pb – ur 54–64% | V – CL – Mwt 401.5 PSA 80.3 Å ² $\log P$ 0.42 | MOROCROMEN Cardiovascular agent |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–20 h F 40–50% pb 95–97% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 414.5 PSA 43.8 Å ² $\log P$ 3.71 | ASIMADOLINE Analgesic; Metabolism: glucuronidation, aromatic hydroxylation, oxidative ring fission of pyrrolidine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13–19 h F 15–19% pb 98% ur 3% | V 2.6 CL 12 Mwt 426.6 PSA 55.6 Å ² $\log P$ 4.50 | DARIFENACIN Muscarinic acetylcholine M ₃ antagonist for treatment of urinary incontinence Metabolism: hydroxylation and ring-opening of dihydrobenzofuran, N-dealkylation of pyrrolidine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ – F – pb 99.99% ur – | V – CL 0.65 Mwt 415.5 PSA 30.9 Å ² $\log P$ 6.34 | ZAMIFENACIN Muscarinic acetylcholine M ₃ antagonist for treatment of irritable bowel syndrome |

| | | | |
|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–8 h F 92–96% pb 60–70% ur 70% | V 3.2–3.6 CL 5.0–6.7 Mwt 441.6 PSA 105 Å ² log P 2.0 | DOFETILIDE Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: N-dealkylation, N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±4 h F 100% pb 99% ur 11±3% | V 0.23 CL 0.5–0.7 Mwt 408.5 PSA 99.9 Å ² log P 2.6 | TAMSULOSIN For treatment of benign prostatic hypertrophy; CYP3A4 and 2D6 substrate Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation (<i>para</i> to OR), O-demethylation, O-deethylation, N-dealkylation (to 2-ethoxyphenoxyacetic acid) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13±8 h F 32% pb 97% ur <4% | V 0.8 CL 2.6 Mwt 495.5 PSA 97.1 Å ² log P 2.33 | SILODOSIN α_1 -Adrenoceptor antagonist Metabolism: glucuronidation, oxidation of alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17–25 h F 70–90% pb >99% ur <3% | V 2–3 CL 4–7 Mwt 495.6 PSA 67.5 Å ² log P 6.21 | MIBEFRADIL Calcium channel blocker, antihypertensive Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, benzylic hydroxylation to secondary alcohol, then oxidation to ketone, N-dealkylation; withdrawn in 1998 because of drug–drug interactions |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7 h F High pb – ur <1.5% | V/F 133±69 CL – Mwt 404.5 PSA 71.0 Å ² log P 3.61 | ELIGLUSTAT Inhibitor of glucosylceramide synthase for treatment of Gaucher and Fabry disease |

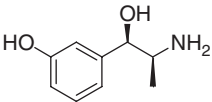
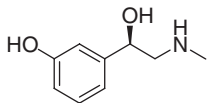
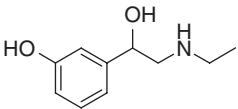
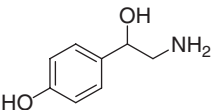
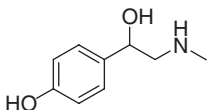
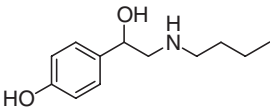
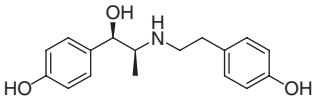
$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier; DPPIV, dipeptidylpeptidase IV; GABA, γ -aminobutyric acid; HT, hydroxytryptamine; NMDA, *N*-methyl D-aspartic.

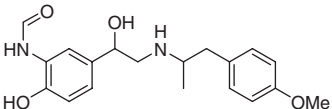
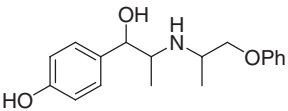
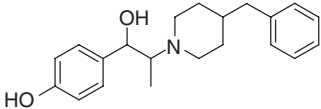
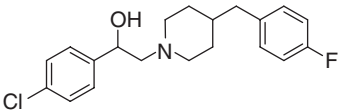
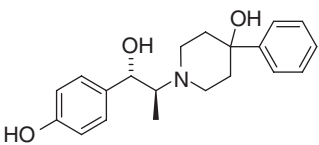
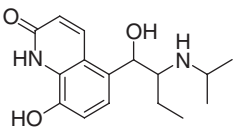
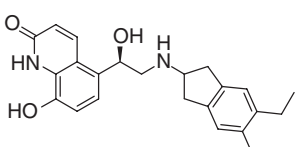
Table 47.2 2-Aryl-2-hydroxyethylamines and related compounds. V in l/kg; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g/mol.

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–6 h F 85% pb 0% ur 22–99% | V/F 2.2–4.5 CL/F 4.3–9.8 Mwt 165.2 PSA 32.3 Å ² log P 1.2 | EPHEDRINE Bronchodilator Metabolism: N-dealkylation, aromatic 4-hydroxylation, then conjugation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.7±0.4 h F >70% pb – ur 65±10% | V/F 4.1±0.9 CL/F 10±3 Mwt 151.2 PSA 46.3 Å ² log P 0.3 | PHENYLPROPANOLAMINE Decongestant, anorexic, bronchodilator; withdrawn in 2000 because of stroke risk |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–19 h F 62% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 176.2 PSA 47.6 Å ² log P 1.32 | METHYLAMINOX Stimulant, anorexic, and recreational drug (racemic cis isomer) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16–31 h F – pb – ur 19% | V – CL – Mwt 177.3 PSA 21.3 Å ² log P 1.86 | PHENMETRAZINE Anorexic Metabolism: N- and O-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 19–24 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 191.3 PSA 12.5 Å ² log P 2.1 | PHENDIMETRAZINE Anorexic Metabolism: N-demethylation, N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.3±1.0 h F 85±14% pb – ur – | V 0.73±0.28 CL 124±11 Mwt 237.3 PSA 39.7 Å ² log P 1.3 | VILOXAZINE Antidepressant Metabolism: aromatic 4- and 5-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.2 h (rat) F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 231.3 PSA 30.5 Å ² log P 1.79 | INDELOXAZINE Antidepressant, nootropic Metabolism (rat): dihydroxylation of alkene, N-acetylation, oxidative degradation of morpholine ring |

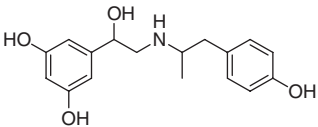
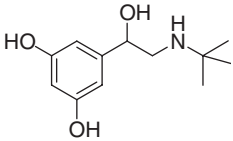
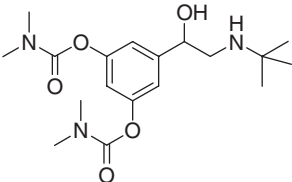
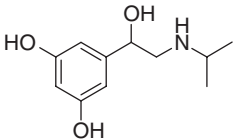
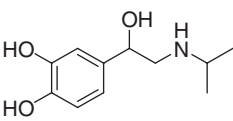
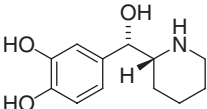
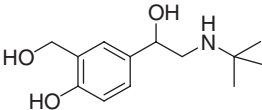
| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4±2 h F 40% pb – ur 14% | V – CL – Mwt 227.7 PSA 32.3 Å ² log P 2.7 | TULOButEROL Bronchodilator Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation (para to alkyl) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12±4 h F 5–20%* pb 84±2% ur <1% | V/F 7.2±1.6 CL/ F 35±9 Mwt 239.8 PSA 29.1 Å ² log P 3.4 | BUPROPION *animals; antidepressant, dopamine–norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol, hydroxylation of <i>tert</i> -butyl, then hemiacetal formation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.3 h F 20±7% pb 12–47% ur 4% | V 1.8±0.7 CL 15±5 Mwt 237.7 PSA 29.1 Å ² log P 2.27 | KETAMINE Anesthetic (iv); NMDA (<i>N</i> -methyl aspartate) antagonist Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation, dehydrogenation to conjugated cyclohexenone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h* F 46%* pb – ur 14% | V – CL – Mwt 227.7 PSA 32.3 Å ² log P 2.7 | SOLABEGRON *monkey β ₃ adrenergic agonist, treatment of overactive bladder and irritable bowel syndrom Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 23–32 h F – pb Low ur – | V – CL – Mwt 255.8 PSA 23.5 Å ² log P 3.26 | CLOBUTINOL Antitussive Metabolite: <i>N</i> -desmethyl; withdrawn 2007 for causing cardiac arrhythmias |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–7 h F 20% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 410.9 PSA 81.6 Å ² log P 4.4 | NORFENEFRINE Adrenergic Metabolism: glucuronidation, sulfation, oxidative deamination to hydroxymandelic acid and (hydroxyphenyl)ethyleneglycol |

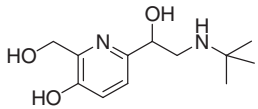
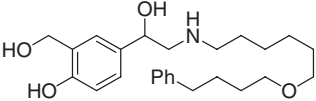
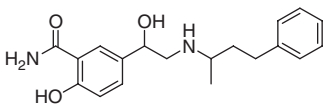
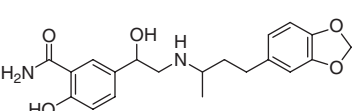
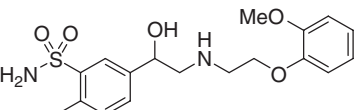
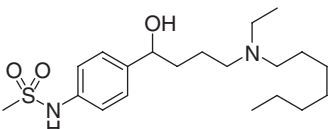
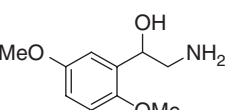
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.3–1.0 h* F – pb 45% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 167.2 PSA 66.5 Å ² log P –0.2 | METARAMINOL *iv Adrenergic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.1–3.4 h F 38% pb – ur 2.6% | V 2.6–5.0 CL – Mwt 167.2 PSA 52.5 Å ² log P 0.4 | PHENYLEPHRINE Mydriatic, decongestant Metabolism: O-glucuronidation, O-sulfation, oxidation (by MAO) to 3-hydroxymandelic acid, deamination to diol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2±1 h F 35% pb 23% ur – | V 2.1 CL 14 Mwt 181.2 PSA 52.5 Å ² log P 0.4 | ETILEFRIN Antihypertensive Metabolism: O-sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5 h F 25% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 153.2 PSA 66.5 Å ² log P –0.6 | OCTOPAMINE Adrenergic Metabolism: deamination, conjugation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 10–20% pb – ur 2.5% | V – CL – Mwt 167.2 PSA 52.5 Å ² log P 0.4 | OXEDRINE, SYNEPHRINE Adrenergic, vasopressor Metabolism: O-sulfation, O-glucuronidation, deamination to hydroxymandelic acid and 2-(hydroxyphenyl)glycol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5 h F 75% pb – ur 30% | V 2.5–5.0 CL – Mwt 209.3 PSA 52.5 Å ² log P 1.9 | BAMETHAN Vasodilator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7–2.6 h F 30% pb 25–35% ur 35% | V 7 CL 23 Mwt 287.4 PSA 72.7 Å ² log P 2.1 | RITODRINE Tocolytic Metabolism: glucuronidation, sulfation |

| | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10 h F – pb 61–64% ur 10% | V – CL – Mwt 344.4 PSA 90.8 Å ² log P 2.2 | FORMOTEROL Antiasthmatic Metabolism: O-demethylation, glucuronidation, sulfation, N-deformylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3 h F 2.2% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 301.4 PSA 61.7 Å ² log P 2.8 | ISOXSUPRINE β-Adrenergic agonist, vasodilator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h F 5% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 325.5 PSA 43.7 Å ² log P 3.6 | IFENPRODIL Vasodilator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16–20 h F 47% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 347.9 PSA 23.5 Å ² log P 4.71 | ELIPRODIL NMDA antagonist Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–20 h F 23–62% pb 37% ur 6% | V 4.4–6.5 CL 4–27 Mwt 327.4 PSA 63.9 Å ² log P 1.75 | TRAXOPRODIL Glutamate (NMDA) antagonist, neuroprotectant Metabolism: hydroxylation to catechol, then O-methylation, glucuronidation, sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F 40% pb – ur 20% | V 1.4 CL – Mwt 290.4 PSA 85.3 Å ² log P 1.7 | PROCATEROL Bronchodilator Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 116–182 h F 43%* pb 95% ur <2% | V 39 CL 6 Mwt 392.5 PSA 81.6 Å ² log P 3.88 | INDACATEROL *inhaled, 33% (dog, po) Adrenergic agonist, bronchodilator Metabolism: hydroxylation, phenol-glucuronidation, N-dealkylation |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 h F 2–5% pb 50–55% ur 60% | V 1.9–2.7 CL – Mwt 303.4 PSA 92.9 Å ² log P 1.5 | FENOTEROL Bronchodilator, tocolytic Metabolism: O-sulfation, O-glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14±2 h F 14±2% pb 20% ur 56±4% | V 1.8±0.2 CL 3.4±0.6 Mwt 225.3 PSA 72.7 Å ² log P 1.4 | TERBUTALINE Bronchodilator, tocolytic Metabolism: O-sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–15 h F 12–20% pb 45% ur – | V 1.6 CL – Mwt 367.4 PSA 71.6 Å ² log P 1.4 | BAMBUTEROL Bronchodilator Metabolism: hydrolysis of carbamates |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–6 h F 10–40% pb 10% ur – | V 7.6 CL 14 Mwt 211.3 PSA 72.7 Å ² log P 1.0 | ORCIPRENALINE, METAPROTERENOL Bronchodilator Metabolism: O-sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 min F 25% pb – ur 40% | V – CL – Mwt 211.3 PSA 72.7 Å ² log P 0.32 | ISOPROTERENOL Bronchodilator Metabolism: aromatic O-methylation by COMT |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 min (iv) F – pb – ur 2% | V – CL – Mwt 223.3 PSA 72.7 Å ² log P 0.74 | RIMITEROL Bronchodilator Metabolism: O-sulfation, O-methylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.7–5.0 h F 43–50% pb 8% ur 51–64% | V 1.6–2.5 CL 6.8–7.7 Mwt 239.3 PSA 72.7 Å ² log P 1.4 | SALBUTAMOL, ALBUTEROL Bronchodilator, tocolytic Metabolism: phenol sulfation |

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|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 60% pb – ur 10% | V – CL – Mwt 240.3 PSA 85.6 Å ² log P 0.4 | PIRBUTEROL Bronchodilator Metabolism: sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±3 h F – pb 96% ur <5% | V – CL – Mwt 415.6 PSA 82 Å ² log P 4.2 | SALMETEROL Racemate, bronchodilator, CYP3A4 substrate Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.9±2.0 h F 18±5% pb 50% ur <5% | V 9.4±3.4 CL 25±10 Mwt 328.4 PSA 95.6 Å ² log P 2.7 | LABETALOL Antihypertensive, four stereoisomers Metabolism: phenol glucuronidation, N-dealkylation to 3-amino-1-phenylbutane |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11–16 h F 30–64% pb – ur 8% | V 16 CL 16 Mwt 372.4 PSA 114 Å ² log P 2.57 | MEDROXALOL Vasodilator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F >93% pb 97–98% ur 35% | V 0.75 CL 1.9 Mwt 380.5 PSA 119 Å ² log P 1.01 | AMOSULALOL Antihypertensive Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation (para to alkoxy), benzylic hydroxylation, O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–9 h (iv) F 3% pb 41% ur <5% | V 11–15 CL 24–31 Mwt 384.6 PSA 78.0 Å ² log P 4.17 | IBUTILIDE Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: hydroxylation and oxidative degradation of heptyl group |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–4 h F 93%* pb Low ur 80% | V 4–8 CL 20–30 Mwt 197.2 PSA 64.7 Å ² log P –0.03 | DESGLY MIDODRINE Antihypertensive, vasoconstrictor, does not cross bbb *drug on oral administration of its prodrug midodrine Metabolism: O-demethylation |

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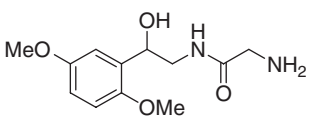
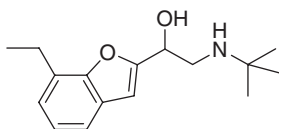
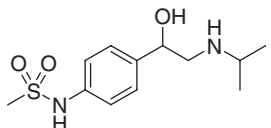
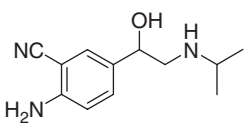
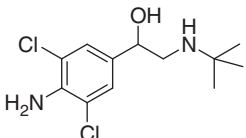
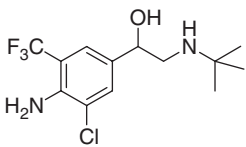
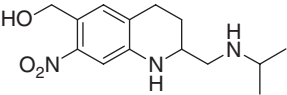
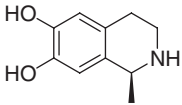
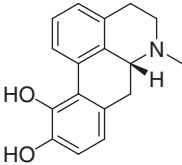
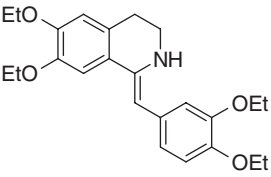
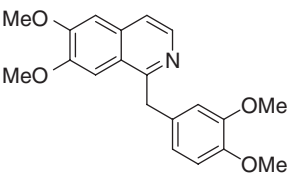
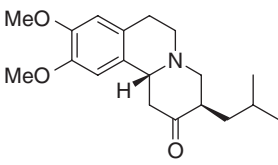
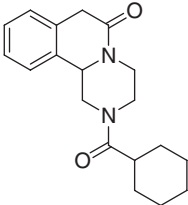
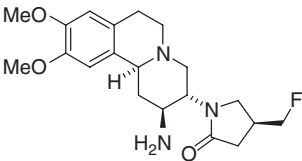
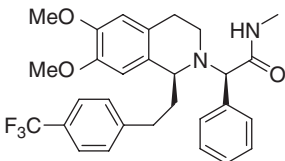
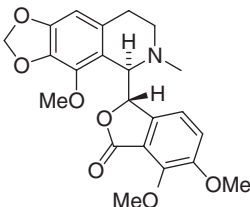
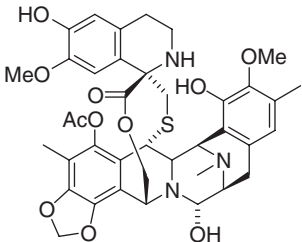
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|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25 min F – pb low ur 2–3% | V – CL – Mwt 254.3 PSA 93.8 Å ² log P –0.4 | MIDODRINE Prodrug of desglymidodrine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.6 h F 46±15% pb – ur <1% | V 3.3 CL 10.7 Mwt 261.4 PSA 45.4 Å ² log P 3.5 | BUFURALOL Antianginal, antihypertensive Metabolism: aromatic and benzylic hydroxylation, then oxidation of benzylic alcohol to ketone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12±3 h F 90–100% pb 0% ur >75% | V/F 2.0±0.4 CL/ F 2.6±0.5 Mwt 272.4 PSA 78.4 Å ² log P 0.8 | SOTALOL Antianginal, antiarrhythmic, antihypertensive |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h* F – pb – ur – | V 4.1* CL – Mwt 219.3 PSA 82.1 Å ² log P 0.65 | CIMATEROL *steer, im Repartitioning agent |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 34 h F 89–98% pb >90% ur 67% | V – CL – Mwt 277.2 PSA 58.3 Å ² log P 2.8 | CLENBUTEROL Bronchodilator, tocolytic Metabolism: aromatic N-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20–30 h F >91% pb – ur 24–64% | V 5.8 CL 3.0 Mwt 310.8 PSA 58.3 Å ² log P 3.0 | MABUTEROL Bronchodilator, antiasthmatic Metabolism: CH ₃ hydroxylation |

Table 47.3 Tetrahydroquinolines, tetrahydroisochinolines, and related compounds. *V* in l/kg; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g/mol.

| | | | |
|---|--|---|--|
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 1.0–2.5 h <i>F</i> Good <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> – CL – Mwt 279.3 PSA 90.1 Å ² log <i>P</i> 2.02 | OXAMNIQUINE Anthelmintic Metabolism: oxidation of alcohol to carboxyl group |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 12 min <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> – CL – Mwt 179.2 PSA 52.5 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.85 | SALSOLINOL Endogenous neurotoxin, contained in chocolate |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 41±15 min* <i>F</i> 2% <i>pb</i> 94% <i>ur</i> <1% | <i>V</i> 1.6±0.5 CL 40±15 Mwt 267.3 PSA 43.7 Å ² log <i>P</i> 1.70 | APOMORPHINE *iv Emetic, crosses bbb Metabolism: N-demethylation, O-sulfation, and O-glucuronidation |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 7–12 h <i>F</i> 25–91% <i>pb</i> 80–95% <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> 3 CL 3.5 Mwt 397.5 PSA 49.0 Å ² log <i>P</i> 3.91 | DROTAVERINE Phosphodiesterase IV inhibitor, antispasmodic |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 2 h (iv) <i>F</i> 5–99% <i>pb</i> 93% <i>ur</i> <1% | <i>V</i> 1 CL 11 Mwt 339.4 PSA 49.8 Å ² log <i>P</i> 2.93 | PAPAVERINE Vasodilator, opium alkaloid Metabolism: demethylation |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 2–8 h <i>F</i> 5–7% <i>pb</i> 82–85% <i>ur</i> 0% | <i>V</i> – CL – Mwt 317.4 PSA 38.8 Å ² log <i>P</i> 2.93 | TETRABENAZINE Antidyskinetic, antipsychotic Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol, O-demethylation |

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|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h <i>F</i> Low <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> <i>V</i> <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 312.4 <i>PSA</i> 40.6 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.66 | PRAZIQUANTEL Anthelmintic, crosses bbb |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–13 h* <i>F</i> 28–174%* <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> 36%* | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 377.5 <i>PSA</i> 68.0 Å ² <i>log P</i> 1.21 | CARMEGLIPTIN *animals DPPIV inhibitor, antidiabetic; little metabolism |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13–19 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 512.6 <i>PSA</i> 50.8 Å ² <i>log P</i> 5.89 | ALMOREXANT Orexin antagonist, hypnotic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h <i>F</i> 30% <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> <1% | <i>V</i> 4.7 <i>CL</i> 22 <i>Mwt</i> 413.4 <i>PSA</i> 75.7 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.39 | NOSCAPINE Antitussive, opium alkaloid Metabolism: O-demethylation, cleavage of C–C bond between lactone and piperidine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17–100 h* <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> >95% <i>ur</i> <1%* | <i>V</i> 17–47 <i>CL</i> 13–35 <i>Mwt</i> 761.8 <i>PSA</i> 194 Å ² <i>log P</i> 1.87 | TRABECTEDIN, ET-743 *iv Antineoplastic |

| | | | |
|--|--|--|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.0±1.1 h <i>F</i> Low <i>pb</i> 50±8% <i>ur</i> 63±35% | V 0.39±0.14 CL 1.9±0.6 <i>Mwt</i> 609.7 PSA 80.6 Å ² $\log P$ 1.99 | D-TUBOCURARINE Neuromuscular blocking agent |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4.7±0.9 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> 35±6% <i>ur</i> 50% | V 0.35±0.04 CL 1.3±0.3 <i>Mwt</i> 652.8 PSA 55.4 Å ² $\log P$ –1.41 | METOCURINE Neuromuscular blocking agent |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2–1.6 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> 28–42% <i>ur</i> 24–38% | V 0.12–0.22 CL 1.5–2.7 <i>Mwt</i> 1035.2 PSA 163.4 Å ² $\log P$ –1.76 | DOXACURIUM Neuromuscular blocking agent |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8 h (iv) <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> 30% <i>ur</i> 0% | V 0.2 CL 55–70 <i>Mwt</i> 1089.3 PSA 163.4 Å ² $\log P$ –0.23 | MIVACURIUM Mixture of stereoisomers |

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| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.3–0.4 h F – pb 38% ur 6–11% | V 0.16±0.06 CL 6.2±2.0 Mwt 929.2 PSA 126.5 Å ² log P –1.59 | ATRACURIUM Neuromuscular blocking agent; mixture of stereoisomers |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 52–63 h F – pb 78% ur 0.6% | V 3.8–4.2 CL 11 Mwt 701.7 PSA 61.9 Å ² log P 4.28 | BROMOTETRANDRINE Induces reversal of P-gp mediated multidrug resistance |

48

Aminoalkylindoles and Indole Alkaloids

In the 1970s, it was proposed that migraine may be caused by a disturbance of the extracranial circulation. Selective serotonin agonists were then sought, which were able to induce vasoconstriction of the extracranial blood vessels [1]. One of the first antimigraine drugs based on this mechanism of action was sumatriptan (1984), a selective 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)_{1B/1D} agonist. Sumatriptan and other “triptans” (Table 48.1) are more selective than the earlier used ergot alkaloid derivatives (e.g., ergotamine). These derivatives show more side effects than triptans, such as nausea, vomiting, and leg weakness.

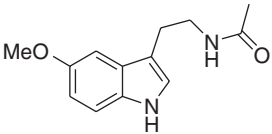
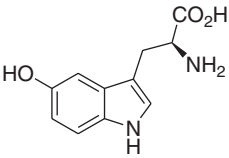
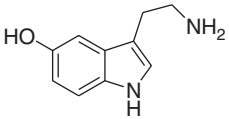
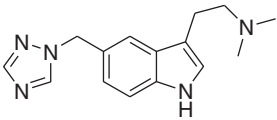
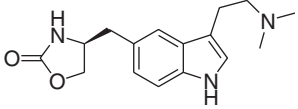
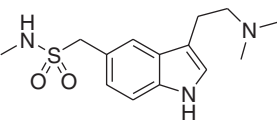
Another group of therapeutically relevant indole derivatives are the vinca alkaloids (e.g., vincristine). These are specific tubulin ligands, which block the mitosis of cells and induce apoptosis. Vinca alkaloids can be used to treat a variety of cancers.

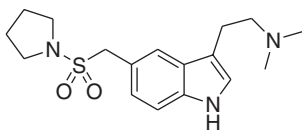
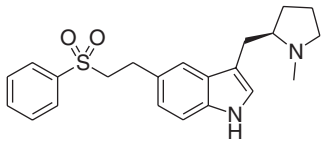
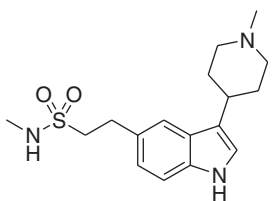
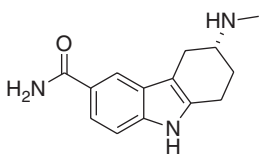
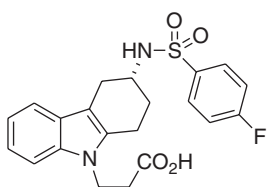
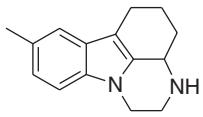
Indoles are electron-rich, chemically reactive heteroarenes. Position 3 is particularly nucleophilic, but this position is blocked in most indole-containing drugs. Stabilization toward oxidation or electrophiles may also be achieved with electron-withdrawing substituents. Bioisosteres of indoles include benzimidazoles or benzothiazoles, which are more stable and easier to prepare than substituted indoles.

Reference

1. (a) Nichols, D.E. and Nichols, C.D. (2008) Serotonin receptors. *Chem. Rev.* **108**, 1614–1641; (b) Sneider, W. (1996) Ergot and its alkaloids, *Drug News Perspect.*, **9**, 253–256.

Table 48.1 Aminoalkylindoles, indole alkaloids, and related compounds. *V* in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5–1.0 h <i>F</i> 100%* pb 61–85% ur – | <i>V</i> 0.6 CL – Mwt 232.3 PSA 54.1 Å ² log <i>P</i> 1.04 | MELATONIN *monkey Natural hormone; induces pigment lightening in skin cells Metabolism: aromatic 6-hydroxylation, then O-sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h <i>F</i> 50–85% pb 60% ur – | <i>V</i> – CL – Mwt 220.2 PSA 99.3 Å ² log <i>P</i> –0.29 | OXITRIPTAN, 5-HYDROXYTRYPTOPHAN Prodrug of serotonin, antidepressant, antimigraine; crosses bbb Metabolism (in CNS): decarboxylation, then oxidation to hydroxyindolylacetic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ Short <i>F</i> 0% pb – ur – | <i>V</i> – CL – Mwt 176.2 PSA 62.0 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.55 | SEROTONIN Natural hormone Metabolism: O-methylation and N-acetylation to melatonin, oxidative deamination |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–2.9 h <i>F</i> 35–47% pb 14% ur 8–35% | <i>V</i> 1.3–2.2 CL 12–19 Mwt 269.3 PSA 49.7 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.96 | RIZATRIPTAN 5-HT _{1B,1D} agonist, antimigraine, crosses bbb Metabolism: oxidation to <i>N</i> -oxide and triazolomethylindole-3-acetic acid, aromatic 6-hydroxylation, <i>N</i> -demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.3–3.0 h <i>F</i> 36–60% pb 14–25% ur <10% | <i>V</i> 7 CL 8.7 Mwt 287.4 PSA 57.4 Å ² log <i>P</i> 1.64 | ZOLMITRIPTAN 5-HT _{1B,1D} agonist, antimigraine Metabolites: <i>N</i> -oxide, <i>N</i> -desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h), oxidation to indole-3-acetic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.9±0.3 h <i>F</i> 14±5% pb 14–21% ur 22±4% | <i>V</i> 0.65±0.10 CL 16±2 Mwt 295.4 PSA 73.6 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.44 | SUMATRIPTAN Antimigraine Metabolism: oxidation to indole-3-acetic acid (by MAO) |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–4 h F 69–80% pb 23–40% ur 40–65% | V 2.6–2.8 CL 8.9–9.5 Mwt 335.5 PSA 64.8 Å ² log P 1.89 | ALMOTRIPTAN Antimigraine Metabolism: oxidation to indole-3-acetic acid (by MAO), N-demethylation, oxidative ring opening of pyrrolidine to 4-aminobutyric acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.6–7.0 h F 50% pb 85% ur 85% | V 2–3 CL 9 Mwt 382.5 PSA 61.6 Å ² log P 3.08 | ELETRIPTAN Antimigraine Metabolism: N-demethylation, oxidation to N-oxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 h F 63–74% pb 20–31% ur 50% | V 2.4 CL 6.6 Mwt 335.5 PSA 73.6 Å ² log P 1.35 | NARATRIPTAN 5-HT _{1A,1B,1D,1F} agonist, antimigraine Metabolite: N-oxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24–30 h F 18–30% pb 15% ur 2–10% | V 3.6 CL 2.5 Mwt 243.3 PSA 70.9 Å ² log P 0.85 | FROVATRIPTAN 5-HT _{1B,1D} agonist, antimigraine Metabolism: N-demethylation, then N-acetylation of aliphatic amine, aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 100%* pb >95% ur <8% | V – CL 12* Mwt 416.5 PSA 96.8 Å ² log P 3.02 | RAMATROBAN *dog PGD ₂ , PGH ₂ , and TxA ₂ antagonist Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–7 h F 20–30% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 226.3 PSA 17.0 Å ² log P 3.62 | PIRLINDOLE MAO inhibitor, antidepressant; active metabolite: dehydropirlindole (nonchiral imine) |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|--|--|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–11 h F >51% pb 98% ur <5% | V – CL – Mwt 456.6 PSA 119 Å ² $\log P$ –1.23 | DELAVIRDINE Reverse transcriptase inhibitor, antiviral Metabolism: N-dealkylation, pyridine hydroxylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 8–10 h F 17% pb – ur – | V 0.9 CL 6.4 Mwt 458.6 PSA 112 Å ² $\log P$ 1.58 | AVITRIPTAN Antimigraine Metabolites: N-desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 11 h), O-desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 5 h) Further metabolism: N-dealkylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 11–31 h F 30% pb – ur – | V 0.4 CL 7.3 Mwt 349.4 PSA 77.2 Å ² $\log P$ 3.62 | PANOBINOSTAT Histone deacetylase inhibitor Metabolism: reductive N–O bond cleavage, amide hydrolysis, oxidative degradation of cinnamic acid, glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 15–42 h F 20% pb 90% ur – | V 17–32 CL 22–28 Mwt 314.5 PSA 44.3 Å ² $\log P$ 3.90 | PERGOLIDE Antiparkinsonian Metabolites: despropyl, sulfoxide, and sulfone; withdrawn in 2007 because of hepatotoxicity |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6 h F 20–32% pb – ur – | V 1.3–1.7 CL 17 Mwt 340.5 PSA 51.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.20 | TERGURIDE Antiparkinsonian, antihyperprolactinemic |

| | | | |
|--|---|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–2.0 h F 20% pb 15% ur 0% | V 2.3 CL 10–20 Mwt 338.5 PSA 51.4 Å ² $\log P$ 3.21 | LISURIDE Antimigraine, prolactin inhibitor, antiparkinsonian Metabolism: N-deethylation, aromatic hydroxylation, oxidation of both alkenes |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F High pb 90% ur Low | V 0.28 CL – Mwt 323.4 PSA 39.3 Å ² $\log P$ 2.71 | LSD 5-HT _{2A,2C} agonist, synthetic hallucinogenic Metabolism: oxidation of indole to 2-indolone, N-deethylation, N-demethylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4±1 h F 85% pb 35% ur 3% | V 0.5–1.0 CL 7.7 Mwt 339.4 PSA 68.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.99 | METHYLERGOMETRINE, METHYLERGONOVINE Oxytocic, metabolite of methysergide |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h F 13% pb 84% (rat) ur – | V – CL 72–104 (rat) Mwt 353.5 PSA 57.5 Å ² $\log P$ 1.81 | METHYSERGIDE Antimigraine Metabolism: N-demethylation of indole to methylergometrine |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 63–69 h F 63% (rat) pb 40–42% ur 10% | V – CL 47 Mwt 451.6 PSA 71.7 Å ² $\log P$ 2.43 | CABERGOLINE Prolactin inhibitor, crosses bbb Metabolism: hydrolysis of acylurea, N-dealkylation of imide, and piperidine |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|---|---|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7±5 h <i>F</i> 3–6% pb 93% ur 2% | <i>V</i> 2±1 CL 5±6 Mwt 654.6 PSA 118 Å ² log <i>P</i> 8.6 | BROMOCRIPTINE Dopamine agonist for treatment of hyperprolactinemia Metabolism: hydroxylation of proline |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 15–20 h <i>F</i> 2–3% pb 45–64% ur – | <i>V</i> 22±4 CL – Mwt 577.7 PSA 118 Å ² log <i>P</i> 6.37 | DIHYDROERGOCRYPTINE Dopamine agonist for treatment of Parkinson disease; crosses bbb |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 14 h <i>F</i> – pb 68% ur <1% | <i>V</i> 16 CL 28 Mwt 611.7 PSA 118 Å ² log <i>P</i> 6.55 | DIHYDROERGOCRISTINE 5-HT antagonist, vasoconstrictor GI absorption: 25% |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 9–13 h <i>F</i> 1%* pb 93% ur – | <i>V</i> 15–30 CL 14.3 Mwt 583.7 PSA 118 Å ² log <i>P</i> 5.69 | DIHYDROERGOTAMINE *nasal: 38% Vasoconstrictor; high first-pass effect Absorption from GI tract: 30% Metabolite: 8-hydroxy |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.1 h (iv) <i>F</i> 2% pb 98% ur – | <i>V</i> 3.6 CL 15 Mwt 581.7 PSA 118 Å ² log <i>P</i> 7.37 | ERGOTAMINE Antimigraine |

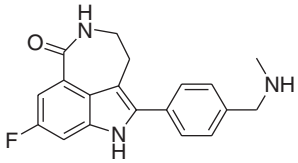
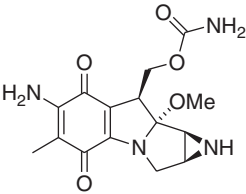
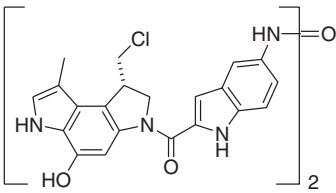
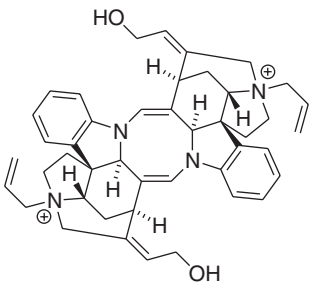
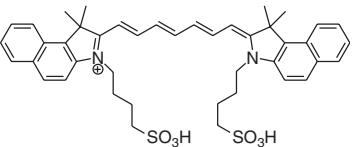
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|--|---|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3.5 h F 9–25% pb 98–99% ur 11% | V 15 CL 25 Mwt 591.8 PSA 118.2 Å ² log P 3.07 | ERGOLOID, DIHYDROERGOTOXINE Nootropic for the treatment of Alzheimer disease |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0–1.5 h F – pb 75% ur – | V 24 CL 10.6 Mwt 810.97 PSA 154 Å ² log P 5.92 | VINBLASTINE Antineoplastic Metabolism: O-deacetylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0–2.5 h F – pb 75% ur 12% | V 8.6 CL 1.8 Mwt 825.0 PSA 171 Å ² log P 5.75 | VINCRIStINE Antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 20–40 h F 12–59% pb 98% ur 11% | V 76 CL 17–21 Mwt 778.9 PSA 134 Å ² log P 7.08 | VINOReLBINE Antineoplastic |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|--|--|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 35 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 5 CL 2.2 Mwt 753.9 PSA 165 Å ² log P 4.94 | VINDESINE Antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 40 h (iv) F 57% pb 67% ur – | V 35 CL 10 Mwt 816.9 PSA 134 Å ² log P 4.12 | VINFLUNINE Antineoplastic Metabolite: O-desacetyl ($t_{1/2}$ 120 h) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6 h F 20% pb 29–61% ur 4% | V 6.2 CL 9.8 Mwt 326.4 PSA 46.9 Å ² log P 1.81 | AJMALINE Antihypertensive, antiarrhythmic Metabolism: aromatic mono- and dihydroxylation, then O-methylation, reduction of aminal to piperidine, oxidation of both hydroxyl groups to carbonyl groups, N-oxidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5±0.5 h F 57% pb 66% ur 0% | V 3.8 (rat) CL 13±2 Mwt 350.5 PSA 34.5 Å ² log P 3.98 | VINPOCETINE Vasodilator, nootropic Metabolism: hydrolysis of ester |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1–6 h F 58% (rat) pb 30% ur 5–10% | V 2 (rat) CL – Mwt 354.4 PSA 54.7 Å ² log P 2.94 | VINCAMINE Vasodilator, crosses bbb Metabolism (rat): hydrolysis of ester, then decarboxylation and oxidation to lactam, 6-(allylic)-hydroxylation, then oxidation to 6-ketone |

| | | | |
|--|---|--|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 10–16 h F – pb 55–59% ur 10–20% | V 13 CL – Mwt 334.4 PSA 32.8 Å ² log P 1.59 | STRYCHNINE Rodenticide, central stimulant |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.3–2.5 h F 5–40% pb – ur 0.5–1.0% | V 1 CL 26 Mwt 354.4 PSA 65.6 Å ² log P 2.87 | YOHIMBINE Adrenergic α_2 antagonist, mydriatic Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation (para to amino group and para to vinyl group) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 168–271 h F 40–50% pb 95% ur 1% | V – CL – Mwt 608.7 PSA 118 Å ² log P 4.45 | RESERPINE Antihypertensive Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, 4-O-demethylation of trimethoxyphenyl |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4–12 h F 39–65% pb 94.8% ur <2% | V 14 CL 11–13 Mwt 404.5 PSA 73.4 Å ² log P 4.76 | ABECARNIL Benzodiazepine agonist, anxiolytic Metabolism: O-debenzylation, then glucuronidation and sulfation, ester hydrolysis |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 19 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 11 CL 18 Mwt 348.4 PSA 64.2 Å ² log P 4.01 | INTOPLICINE Topoisomerase I inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 17.5 h F 81% pb 94% ur Negligible | V 0.9 CL 0.6 Mwt 389.4 PSA 74.9 Å ² log P 2.71 | TADALAFIL Phosphodiesterase V inhibitor for the treatment of erectile dysfunction Metabolite: methylcatechol glucuronide |

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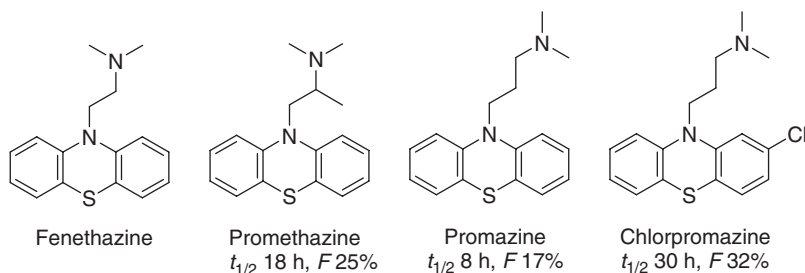
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|---|-----------|------------|-------|----------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 9.5 h (iv) | V | 3.3 | AG-14699 PARP inhibitor, oncolytic |
| | F | – | CL | – | |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 323.4 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 56.9 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.62 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 0.7 h | V | 0.5 | MITOMYCIN C Antineoplastic Metabolism: elimination of MeOH to form pyrrole, then ring opening of aziridine to aminoalcohol or aminophosphate |
| | F | – | CL | 13.4 | |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 334.3 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 147 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | –0.30 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2 h (iv) | V | 0.06 | BIZELESIN Alkylant, antineoplastic |
| | F | – | CL | 0.7 | |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 815.7 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 185 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 9.15 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3–4 h | V | 0.28–0.36 | ALCURONIUM Muscle relaxant |
| | F | – | CL | 1.3–1.4 | |
| | pb | 40% | Mwt | 666.9 | |
| | ur | 80–85% | PSA | 46.9 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | –2.45 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 4 min (iv) | V | 0.04 | INDOCYANINE GREEN Diagnostic dye |
| | F | – | CL | 6.8 | |
| | pb | 95% | Mwt | 754.0 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 115.0 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 1.38 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier; GI, gastrointestinal; LSD, lysergic acid diethylamide; MAO, monoamine oxidase; PARP, poly(ADP-ribose)polymerase; PGD, prostaglandin; TxA, thromboxane.

49

Phenothiazines

The first tricyclic antipsychotics were the phenothiazines [1]. Fenethazine (Scheme 49.1) had been tested as an antimalarial during World War II (WWII), and in the late 1940s, researchers at Rhone-Poulenc discovered its antihistaminic properties (H_1 antagonism). A small structural modification led to the more potent promethazine. Besides showing antihistaminic properties, promethazine was found to prolong the barbiturate-induced sleeping time in rodents.



Scheme 49.1 Leads of the antipsychotic chlorpromazine.

Henri Laborit, a military surgeon working in a hospital in Bizerte, Tunisia, often treated his patients with low doses of several drugs simultaneously, instead of administering a large dose of a single drug, in the belief that this would minimize the risk of overdosing. In 1949, while using promethazine to pretreat patients to be anesthetized, he noticed the strong sedating effect of this drug. In 1950, research was initiated at Rhone-Poulenc to discover better phenothiazine-based anxiolytics. An older compound, promazine, prepared as a potential antihistaminic but devoid of H_1 antagonism, was chosen as the lead structure. Shortly thereafter, chlorpromazine was prepared, which became the first antipsychotic drug (marketed 1952) and a breakthrough in the treatment of schizophrenia [2].

Since then, a huge number of different phenothiazines were developed as neuroleptics for the treatment of psychoses and anxiety. Their mechanism of action is assumed to be central dopamine D_2 receptor antagonism. Because

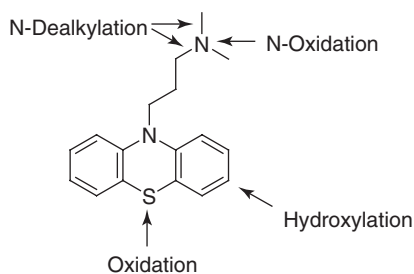
phenothiazines are well tolerated by humans, this substructure has also been used in other types of drugs, for example, in antipyretic arylacetic or arylpropionic acids (Table 49.1).

49.1

Metabolism

Owing to their extensive first-pass metabolism, the oral bioavailability of most phenothiazines is low. Moreover, one inherent problem of most phenothiazines is their high affinity for plasma proteins. The free fraction of such drugs can strongly vary with disease or age, and high interindividual variability of pharmacokinetics (PK) is often observed. This complicates the dosing of the drug, and careful monitoring of patients is required.

The typical metabolic pathways of phenothiazines are shown in Scheme 49.2.

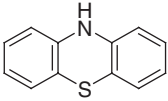
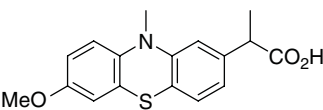
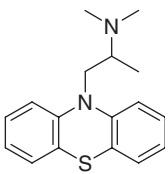
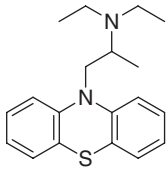
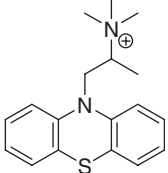
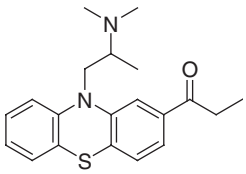


Scheme 49.2 Metabolism of phenothiazines.

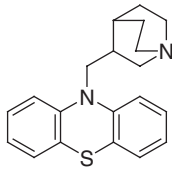
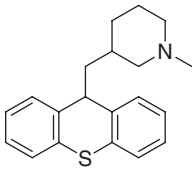
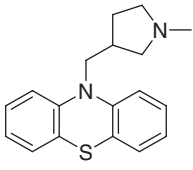
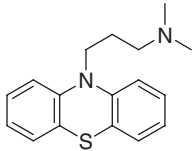
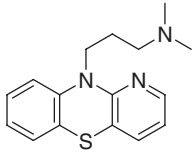
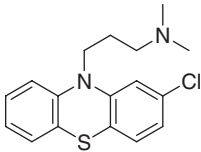
References

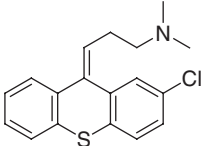
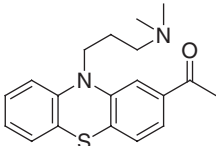
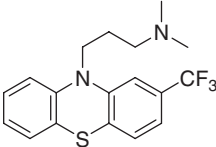
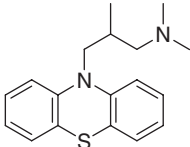
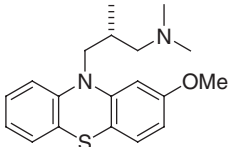
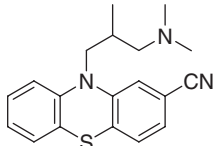
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2. Sneader, W. (2002) The 50th anniversary of chlorpromazine. *Drug News Perspect.* **5**, 466–471.

Table 49.1 Phenothiazines and related compounds. V in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

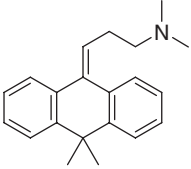
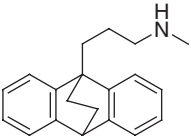
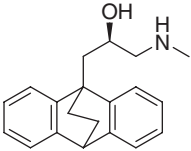
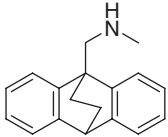
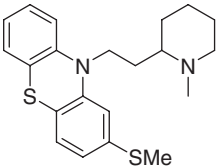
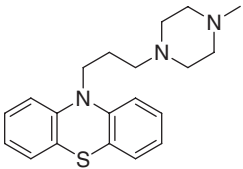
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±5 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 199.3 PSA 15.8 Å ² log P 4 | PHENOTHIAZINE Anthelmintic Metabolism: N-glucuronidation, oxidation to sulfoxide, aromatic hydroxylation, then oxidation to quinoneimine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 315.4 PSA 51.5 Å ² log P 4.3 | PROTIZINIC ACID Antiinflammatory Metabolism: O-demethylation, oxidation to sulfoxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18±2 h F 25% pb 93% ur 0.6% | V 13.5 CL 16 Mwt 284.4 PSA 8.2 Å ² log P 4.4 | PROMETHAZINE Antihistaminic, antiemetic Duration of action: 5±1 h Metabolism: N-demethylation, oxidation to sulfoxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F <5% (rat) pb 93% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 312.5 PSA 8.2 Å ² log P 5.2 | ETHOPROPAZINE Antiparkinsonian, anticholinergic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h (im) F 10% pb – ur 40% (iv) | V 3–6 CL 12 Mwt 299.5 PSA 4.93 Å ² log P 0.49 | THIAZINAMIUM Antihistaminic for im dosing Metabolism: oxidation to sulfoxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±6 h F 33% pb 81% ur – | V 2–3 CL 3–10 Mwt 340.5 PSA 25.2 Å ² log P 4.8 | PROPIOMAZINE Sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: N-demethylation |

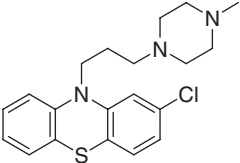
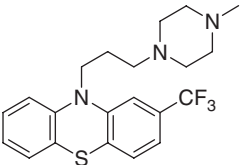
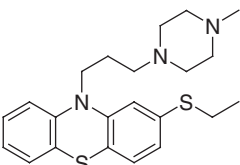
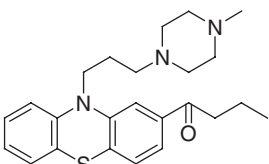
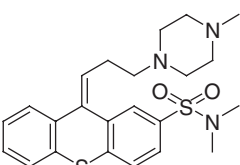
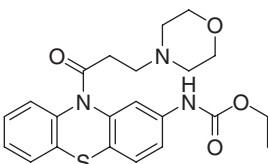
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 45±26 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 322.5 PSA 8.2 Å ² log P 5.1 | MEQUITAZINE Antihistaminic, does not cross bbb readily Metabolism: S-oxidation, aromatic hydroxylation (para to N) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–14 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 309.5 PSA 3.2 Å ² log P 4.7 | METHIXENE Anticholinergic Metabolites: desmethyl, N-oxide, sulfoxide, phenols |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 296.4 PSA 8.2 Å ² log P 4.6 | METHDILAZINE Antipruritic, analgesic, antimicrobial Metabolism: oxidation to sulfoxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±7 h (iv) F 17±9% pb 94% ur – | V 8±4 CL 14±6 Mwt 284.4 PSA 8.2 Å ² log P 4.4 | PROMAZINE Antipsychotic Metabolism: N-demethylation, S-oxidation by CYP1A2 |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F – pb – ur – | V 3 CL 14 Mwt 285.4 PSA 21.1 Å ² log P 3.5 | PROTHIPENDYL Antipsychotic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 30±7 h F 32±19% pb 95–98% ur <1% | V 21±9 CL 9±3 Mwt 318.9 PSA 8.2 Å ² log P 5.0 | CHLORPROMAZINE Antiemetic, antipsychotic, induces hepatic and intestinal mucosa enzymes Metabolism: N-demethylation, 7-hydroxylation, S-oxidation; active metabolites: 7-hydroxy ($t_{1/2}$ 25±15 h), N-oxide ($t_{1/2}$ 6.7±1.4 h) |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10±2 h F 23–64% pb >95% ur – | V 11–23 CL 14–20 Mwt 315.9 PSA 3.2 Å ² log P 5.4 | CHLORPROTHIXENE Antipsychotic; single isomer (<i>Z</i>) Metabolism: S-oxidation to sulfoxide, N-demethylation, addition of glutathione to alkene |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16 h* F 20%* pb >99% ur – | V 6.6 CL – Mwt 326.5 PSA 25.2 Å ² log P 4.3 | ACEPROMAZINE *dog Sedative Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 22±19 h F – pb 85–95% ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 352.4 PSA 8.2 Å ² log P 5.3 | TRIFLUPROMAZINE Antipsychotic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.8±0.6 h F – pb >90% ur 20% | V – CL – Mwt 298.5 PSA 8.2 Å ² log P 4.9 | TRIMEPAZINE Antipruritic Metabolism: oxidation to sulfoxide and sulfone, aromatic hydroxylation, N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 23±8 h F 50–60% pb – ur 1% | V 23–42 CL – Mwt 328.5 PSA 17.4 Å ² log P 4.9 | METHOTRIMEPAZINE, LEVOMEPAZINE Analgesic Metabolites: N- and O-desmethyl, sulfoxide, glucuronide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13±3 h F 10–70% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 323.5 PSA 32.0 Å ² log P 4.6 | CYAMEMAZINE Antipsychotic Metabolism: N-demethylation, sulfoxide formation |

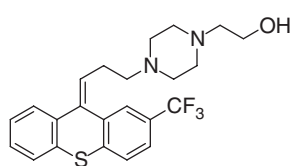
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18±6 h F – pb 89% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 291.4 PSA 3.2 Å ² log P 4.6 | MELITRACENE Antidepressant; active metabolite: <i>N</i> -desmethyl (litracene) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 36–108 h F 37–67% pb 88% ur 3–4% | V 52±18 CL 14 Mwt 277.4 PSA 12.0 Å ² log P 4.0 | MAPROTILINE Antidepressant Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation, hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 19 h F 40% pb – ur <1% | V 24 CL 14.6 Mwt 293.4 PSA 32.3 Å ² log P 3.13 | LEVOPROTILINE Antidepressant Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 249.4 PSA 12.0 Å ² log P 3.5 | BENZOCTAMINE Anxiolytic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–36 h F 25–32% pb 95% ur <1% | V 21±9 CL 10–14 Mwt 370.6 PSA 8.2 Å ² log P 5.6 | THIORIDAZINE Antipsychotic Metabolites: sulfoxide ($t_{1/2}$ 9–12 h), sulfone ($t_{1/2}$ 9–11 h) Further metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, <i>N</i> -oxidation, <i>N</i> -demethylation; withdrawn in 2005 because of cardiotoxicity |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h F 3% pb 94–98% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 339.5 PSA 11.4 Å ² log P 4.3 | PERAZINE Antipsychotic Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation |

| | | | |
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7±1 h F 13–20% pb 91–99% ur <1% | V 22–24 CL – Mwt 373.9 PSA 11.4 Å ² log P 4.9 | PROCHLORPERAZINE Antipsychotic Metabolism: N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15±5 h F – pb 91–99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 407.5 PSA 11.4 Å ² log P 5.1 | TRIFLUOPERAZINE Antipsychotic Metabolite: sulfoxide ($t_{1/2}$ 5.8±1.3 h) Further metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h F – pb 60% ur 3% | V 2.7 CL – Mwt 399.6 PSA 11.4 Å ² log P 5.1 | THIETHYLPERAZINE Antiemetic Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, S-oxidation, dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–30 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 409.6 PSA 52.1 Å ² log P 4.57 | BUTAPERAZINE Antipsychotic Metabolites: sulfoxide, sulfone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 34 h F – pb >99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 443.6 PSA 43.9 Å ² log P 4.0 | THIOTHIXENE Antipsychotic Metabolism: addition of glutathione to alkene |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4±2 h F 38% pb 80–95% ur <1% | V 4–11 CL 20–42 Mwt 427.5 PSA 72.8 Å ² log P 4.4 | MORICIZINE Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: hydrolysis of carbamate and amide, O-deethylation to carbamic acid, morpholine cleavage to 3-aminopropionyl and hydroxyethylaminopropionyl, oxidation to sulfoxide |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|--|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 365.5 PSA 52.2 Å ² $\log P$ 3.1 | PERICYAZINE, PROPERICIAZINE Antipsychotic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 11 h F – pb – ur – | V 8.4 CL – Mwt 475.7 PSA 65.8 Å ² $\log P$ 4.3 | PIPOTIAZINE Antipsychotic Prodrug: palmitate ($t_{1/2}$ 12–24 h, im) Metabolism: hydroxylation, sulfoxide formation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h F 22% pb – ur – | V – CL 13 Mwt 445.6 PSA 85.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.7 | METOPIMAZINE Antiemetic Metabolism: amide hydrolysis to carboxylic acid |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 10±2 h F 20–40% pb 92% ur Low | V 10–35 CL 12–38 Mwt 404.0 PSA 31.6 Å ² $\log P$ 4.3 | PERPHENAZINE Antipsychotic, crosses bbb Prodrug: enanthate ($t_{1/2}$ 2–3 d, im) Metabolites: sulfoxide, 7-hydroxy ($t_{1/2}$ 10–19 h), <i>N</i> -oxide, glucuronide |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 12–29 h F 50% pb 98% ur – | V 12–24 CL 12.8 Mwt 401.0 PSA 26.7 Å ² $\log P$ 4.7 | CLOPENTHIXOL (<i>E/Z</i> mixture) Zuclopenthixol (<i>Z</i> isomer, shown) Antipsychotic Prodrug: decanoate ($t_{1/2}$ 19 d) Metabolism: <i>N</i> -dealkylation, <i>S</i> -oxidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 25±9 h F – pb >99% ur – | V 10 CL 12.8 Mwt 437.5 PSA 31.6 Å ² $\log P$ 4.5 | FLUPHENAZINE Antipsychotic Prodrug: decanoate (Dapotum®, $t_{1/2}$ 132–206 h, im) Metabolism: aromatic 7-hydroxylation, then glucuronidation |



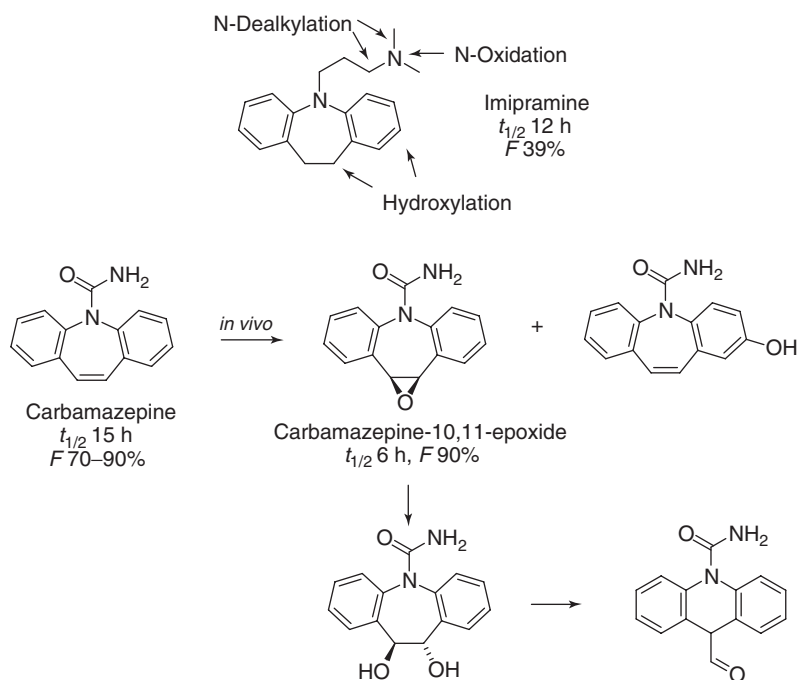
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 29 ± 10 h | V | 15 ± 2 | FLUPENTIXOL |
| F | 48–60% | CL | 6 ± 1 | Antipsychotic; mixture of isomers |
| pb | >95% | Mwt | 434.5 | Prodrug: decanoate ($t_{1/2}$ 3–7 d, im) |
| ur | – | PSA | 26.7 \AA^2 | Metabolism: oxidation to sulfoxide, |
| | | log P | 4.9 | addition of glutathione to alkene, |
| | | | | glucuronidation, sulfation |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier.

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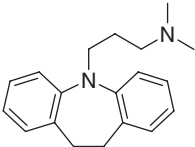
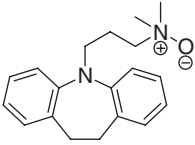
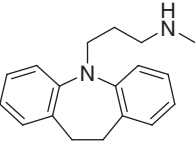
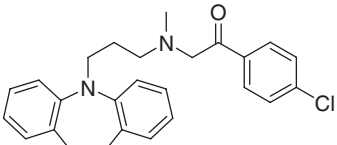
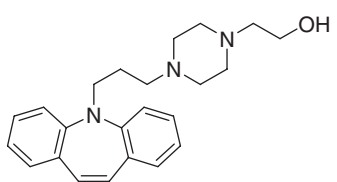
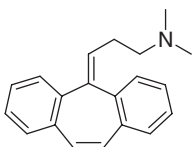
Dibenzazepines and Related Tricyclic Compounds

The antidepressant properties of imipramine, a close analog of promazine, were discovered in 1957 by Roland Kuhn, a Swiss psychiatrist. Compared to phenothiazines, dibenzazepines (Table 50.1) are less sedating but more mood enhancing and act as norepinephrine and serotonin reuptake inhibitors. Typical metabolic transformations are shown in Scheme 50.1.

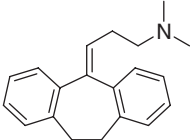
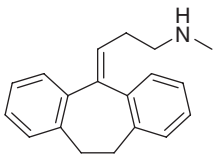
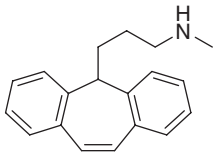
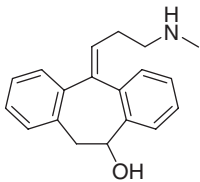
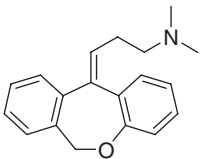
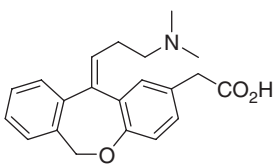


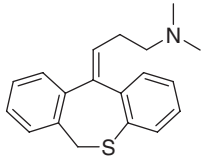
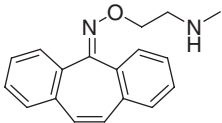
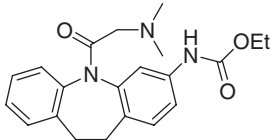
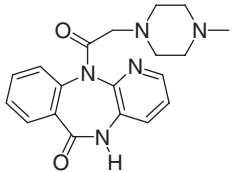
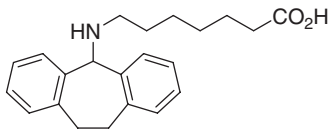
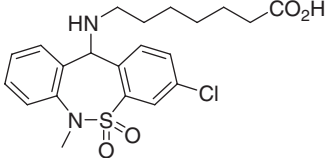
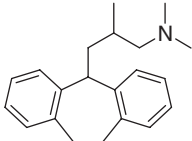
Scheme 50.1 Metabolism of dibenzazepines.

Table 50.1 Dibenzazepines and related compounds. V in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

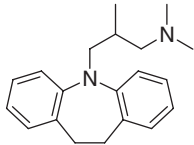
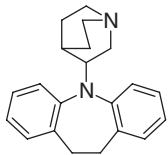
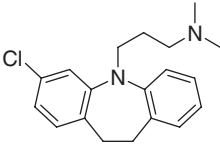
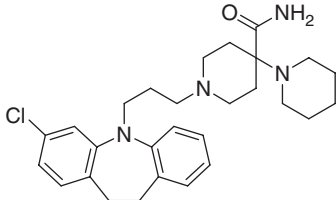
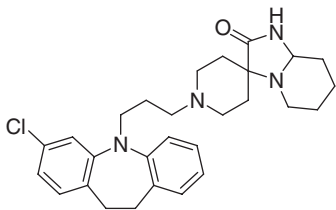
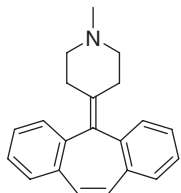
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12±5 h F 39±7% pb 89–91% ur <2% | V 18±3 CL 15±4 Mwt 280.4 PSA 6.5 Å ² log P 4.2 | IMIPRAMINE Antidepressant Metabolism: aromatic and benzylic hydroxylation, N-demethylation, N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.8 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 1.9 CL 12 Mwt 296.4 PSA 20.3 Å ² log P 1.71 | IMIPRAMINE N-OXIDE Antidepressant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 22±5 h F 38±13% pb 82±2% ur 2% | V 20±3 CL 10±2 Mwt 266.4 PSA 15.3 Å ² log P 3.9 | DESIPRAMINE Antidepressant Metabolism: aromatic and benzylic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5±1 h F 10% pb 99% ur – | V – CL 163 Mwt 419.0 PSA 23.5 Å ² log P 6.0 | LOFEPRAMINE Antidepressant Metabolites: desipramine, 2-hydroxydesipramine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±2 h F 95% pb 91% ur 7% | V 10 CL – Mwt 363.5 PSA 31.6 Å ² log P 3.1 | OPIPRAMOL Antidepressant, antipsychotic Metabolites: des(hydroxyethyl), N-carboxymethyl, N-oxide, dibenzazepine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 22±14 h F 55% pb 93% ur – | V – CL 9.8 Mwt 275.4 PSA 3.2 Å ² log P 4.9 | CYCLOBENZAPRINE Muscle relaxant Metabolism: N-demethylation, aromatic hydroxylation, trans-dihydroxylation of olefin, addition of glutathione to alkene |

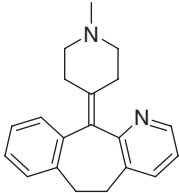
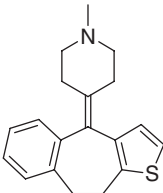
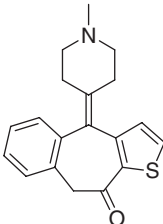
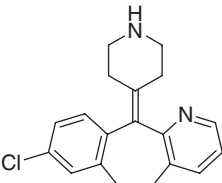
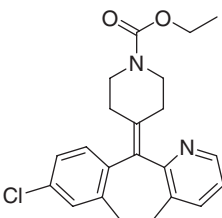
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|---|---|------------------------------------|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 21±5 h F 48±11% pb 95% ur <2% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 15±3 12±3 277.4 3.2 Å ² 4.2 | AMITRIPTYLINE Antidepressant Metabolism: N-demethylation to nortriptyline and benzylic hydroxylation by CYP2D6 |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 31±13 h F 51±5% pb 92±2% ur 2±1% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 18±4 7.2±1.8 263.4 12.0 Å ² 3.9 | NORTRIPTYLINE Antidepressant Metabolite: 10-hydroxynortriptyline |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 78±11 h F 77–93% pb 91–93% ur – | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 21–23 3–4 263.4 12.0 Å ² 4.2 | PROTRIPTYLINE Antidepressant Metabolism: N-oxidation, N-demethylation, dihydroxylation of alkene, oxidative rearrangement to formylanthracene |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8 h F – pb – ur – | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 7.7 11 279.4 32.3 Å ² 3.0 | HYDROXYNORTRIPTYLINE Metabolite of nortriptyline |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17±6 h F 27±10% pb 78% ur 0% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 20±8 14±3 279.4 12.5 Å ² 3.9 | DOXEPIN Antidepressant Active metabolite: N-desmethyldoxepin ($t_{1/2}$ 37±15 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10±2 h* F 57%* pb 55% ur 60–70%* | V CL Mwt PSA log P | – – 337.4 49.8 Å ² 2.96 | OLOPATADINE *on intranasal dosing Histamine H ₁ antagonist Metabolites: N-desmethyl, N-oxide |

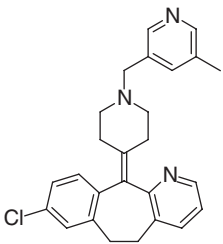
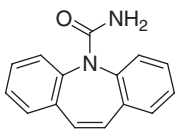
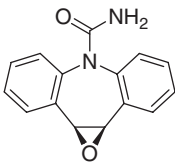
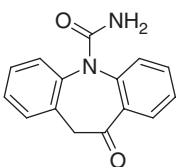
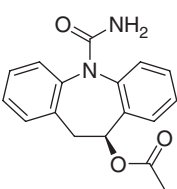
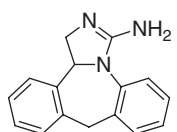
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|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 19±5 h <i>F</i> 30% <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> 0.5% | <i>V</i> 11–78 <i>CL</i> 23–63 Mwt 295.5 PSA 3.2 Å ² <i>log P</i> 4.2 | DOTHIEPIN, DOSULEPIN Antidepressant; mixture of isomers Metabolism: N-demethylation, S-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 35 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – Mwt 278.4 PSA 33.6 Å ² <i>log P</i> 4.3 | DEMEXIPTILINE Antidepressant Metabolism: N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.4 h <i>F</i> 34% <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> 3% | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – Mwt 367.4 PSA 61.9 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.23 | TIRACIZINE Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: carbamate hydrolysis (to des(ethoxycarbonyl), $t_{1/2}$ 14 h), N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11–14 h <i>F</i> 21–33% <i>pb</i> 12% <i>ur</i> 50% | <i>V</i> 1.3–3.4 <i>CL</i> 2.8–3.6 Mwt 351.4 PSA 74.2 Å ² <i>log P</i> 1.3 | PIRENZEPINE Anticulcerative, muscarinic acetylcholine M ₁ antagonist; does not cross bbb Metabolism: N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> 2.4 <i>CL</i> 32 Mwt 337.5 PSA 49.3 Å ² <i>log P</i> 3.98 | AMINEPTINE CNS stimulant Metabolism: oxidative degradation of side chain |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5–3.3 h <i>F</i> 99% <i>pb</i> 95% <i>ur</i> <3% | <i>V</i> 0.5–1.2 <i>CL</i> 3.4–5.5 Mwt 437.0 PSA 95.1 Å ² <i>log P</i> 4.13 | TIANEPTINE Antidepressant Metabolism: oxidative degradation to C ₅ -aminoacid, little first-pass metabolism |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> >90% <i>ur</i> <2% | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – Mwt 293.5 PSA 3.24 Å ² <i>log P</i> 5.30 | BUTRIPTYLINE Antidepressant Metabolism: N-demethylation to norbutriptyline |

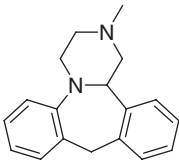
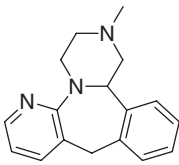
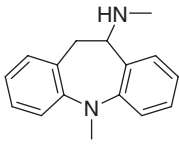
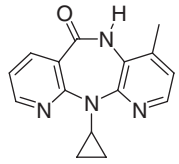
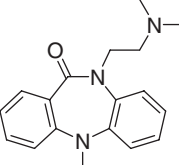
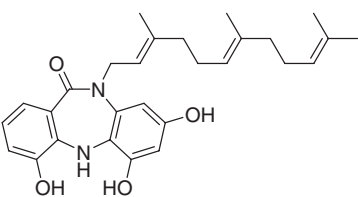
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|---|---|------------------------------------|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17±6 h F 41% pb 95% ur – | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 31 16 294.4 6.5 Å ² 4.6 | TRIMIPRAMINE Antidepressant Metabolism: N-demethylation, aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 29–33 h F 75% pb – ur – | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 34±5 – 304.4 6.5 Å ² 4.98 | QUINUPRAMINE Antidepressant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 27±9 h F 55±15% pb 98% ur 1–3% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 7–20 6–11 314.9 6.5 Å ² 4.8 | CLOMIPRAMINE Antidepressant Metabolites: N-desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 66±11 h), N-oxide, phenols, benzylic alcohols |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 h (dog) F 16% pb – ur – | V CL Mwt PSA log P | – – 481.1 52.8 Å ² 5.28 | CLOCAPRAMINE Antipsychotic Metabolite: mosapramine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15±2 h F 29±7% pb – ur – | V CL Mwt PSA log P | – – 479.1 38.8 Å ² 7.36 | MOSAPRAMINE Antipsychotic, metabolite of clocapramine Metabolism: aromatic and benzylic hydroxylation, oxidation to imidazolone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–4 h F – pb 96–99% ur 0% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | – – 287.4 3.2 Å ² 5.1 | CYPROHEPTADINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist, antipruritic Metabolites: quaternary glucuronide, N-desmethyl, epoxide |

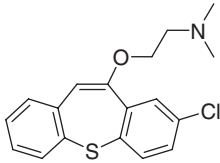
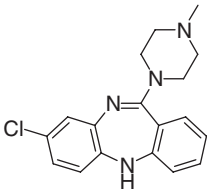
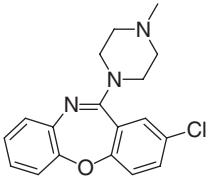
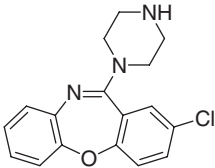
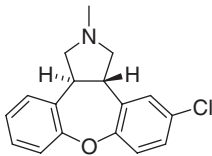
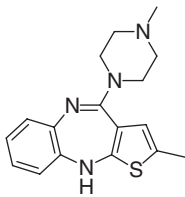
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–12 h F – pb Low ur 20% | V – CL – Mwt 290.4 PSA 16.1 Å ² log P 3.5 | AZATADINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 23 h F 78% pb 91% ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 295.4 PSA 31.5 Å ² log P 2.71 | PIZOTYLINE, PIZOTIFEN 5-HT antagonist for migraine prophylaxis; main metabolite: <i>N</i> -glucuronide ($t_{1/2}$ 23 h, V 1 l kg ⁻¹) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18±7 h F 50% pb 75% ur 1%* | V 56 CL – Mwt 309.4 PSA 48.6 Å ² log P 2.19 | KETOTIFEN *10% of <i>N</i> -desmethyl metabolite Antialsthmatic Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation, <i>N</i> -oxidation, <i>N</i> -glucuronidation, reduction of keto group; active metabolite: desmethyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18±6 h F High pb 73–87% ur 0% | V 49 CL – Mwt 310.8 PSA 24.9 Å ² log P 3.5 | DESLORATADINE Metabolite of loratadine Metabolism: 3-hydroxylation of pyridine, then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±6 h F – pb 97% ur – | V 120±80 CL 142±57 Mwt 382.9 PSA 42.4 Å ² log P 4.6 | LORATADINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Duration of action: 24 h Metabolism: hydrolysis of carbamate |

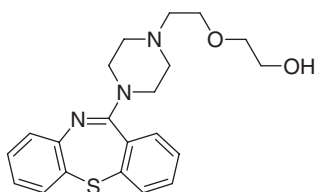
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h F 50% pb >95% ur 0% | V 143 CL – Mwt 416.0 PSA 29.0 Å ² log P 6.11 | RUPATADINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist Metabolism: piperidine-N-dealkylation (to desloratadine), then 3-hydroxylation of pyridine to 3-hydroxydesloratadine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15±5 h F 70–90% pb 74±3% ur <1% | V/F 1.4±0.4 CL/ F 1.3±0.5 Mwt 236.3 PSA 48.0 Å ² log P 2.8 | CARBAMAZEPINE Analgesic, anticonvulsant; half-life decreases on chronic administration Metabolite: 10,11-epoxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h F 90±11% pb 50% ur <1% | V/F 1.1±0.2 CL/ F 1.7±0.3 Mwt 252.3 PSA 58.9 Å ² log P 2.5 | CARBAMAZEPINE-10,11-EPOXIDE Metabolite of carbamazepine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F – pb 40% ur <1% | V 0.7–0.8 CL – Mwt 252.3 PSA 63.4 Å ² log P 2.5 | OXCARBAZEPINE Anticonvulsant Metabolites: 10-hydroxycarbamazepine ($t_{1/2}$ 9 h), glucuronide thereof, 10,11-dihydroxy |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–13 h* F >90%* pb 40%* ur 60%* | V 0.8* CL 0.9* Mwt 296.3 PSA 72.6 Å ² log P 1.70 | ESLICARBAZEPINE Acetate *eslicarbazepine on oral dosing of ester; prodrug of eslicarbazepine, sodium channel blocker Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–12 h F 40% pb 64% ur 55% | V 5.2 CL 14 Mwt 249.3 PSA 41.6 Å ² log P 2.9 | EPINASTINE Antihistaminic (racemic; eye-drops); does not cross bbb, little metabolism |

| | | | |
|---|--|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14±3 h <i>F</i> 20% pb 90–95% ur – | <i>V</i> 16 CL 9.9±1.2 Mwt 264.4 PSA 6.5 Å ² log <i>P</i> 3.6 | MIANSERIN Antidepressant Metabolism: N-demethylation, hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13–40 h <i>F</i> 48–50% pb 85% ur <4% | <i>V</i> 4.8 CL 7.4 Mwt 265.4 PSA 19.4 Å ² log <i>P</i> 2.7 | MIRTAZAPINE Antidepressant Metabolism: pyridine hydroxylation (para to piperazine), N-demethylation, N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8.3 h <i>F</i> – pb – ur – | <i>V</i> 0.6–1.4 CL 17–27 Mwt 238.3 PSA 15.3 Å ² log <i>P</i> 3.4 | METAPRAMINE Antidepressant Metabolism: N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25–45 h <i>F</i> 93±9% pb 60% ur <3% | <i>V</i> 1.2 CL 0.3 Mwt 266.3 PSA 58.1 Å ² log <i>P</i> 1.84 | NEVIRAPINE Antiviral (HIV) Metabolism: hydroxylation and oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H, hydroxylation of pyridines, then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–5 h <i>F</i> 25% pb 80% ur 1% | <i>V</i> 4.6 CL – Mwt 295.4 PSA 30.2 Å ² log <i>P</i> 3.0 | DIBENZEPIN Antidepressant Metabolism: demethylation at side chain |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9.4 h (iv) <i>F</i> – pb 67% ur – | <i>V</i> – CL – Mwt 462.6 PSA 93.0 Å ² log <i>P</i> 8.11 | DIAZEPINOMICIN Antibacterial Metabolite: glucuronide |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | | |
|---|---|------------------------------------|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 21±9 h F 7–13% pb 97% ur – | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 109±59 77±70 331.9 12.5 Å ² 5.5 | ZOTEPINE Atypical antipsychotic Metabolites: N-desmethyl, N-oxide, sulfoxide, phenols |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12±4 h F 55±12% pb >95% ur <1% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 5.4±3.5 6.1±1.6 326.8 30.9 Å ² 3.94 | CLOZAPINE Antipsychotic Metabolism: N-demethylation, aromatic hydroxylation, oxidative degradation of piperazine ring |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15±3 h F 30% pb – ur – | V CL Mwt PSA log P | – – 327.8 32.5 Å ² 4.2 | LOXAPINE Anxiolytic Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, N-demethylation to amoxapine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–11 h F – pb – ur Negligible | V CL Mwt PSA log P | – 15 313.8 41.3 Å ² 3.7 | AMOXAPINE Antidepressant Metabolite of loxapine Metabolites: 7- and 8-hydroxyamoxapine ($t_{1/2}$ 6 and 30 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24 h F <2%* pb 95% ur Low | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 20–25 13 285.8 12.5 Å ² 4.31 | ASENAPINE *35% buccal Antipsychotic Metabolites: desmethyl, N-glucuronide, N-carbamoylglucuronide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 27–39 h F 60–80% pb 93% ur 7% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 10–22 4.5–5.1 312.4 35.2 Å ² 3.5 | OLANZAPINE Antipsychotic Metabolism: N-demethylation, hydroxylation of CM ϵ |



| | | | | |
|-----------|-------|-------|---------------------|---------------------------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 6–7 h | V | 10±4 | QUETIAPINE |
| F | 9±4% | CL | – | Atypical antipsychotic |
| pb | 83% | Mwt | 383.5 | Metabolism: piperazine |
| ur | 1–5% | PSA | 48.8 Å ² | N-dealkylation (to |
| | | log P | 3.5 | desalkylquetiapine, $t_{1/2}$ 9–12 h) |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier; CNS, central nervous system; 5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine.

51

3-Aryloxy-2-Hydroxypropylamines (β -Adrenergic Antagonists; “ β -Blockers”)

Five adrenaline receptors have been identified: two α - and three β -receptors. α -Adrenoceptor antagonists were developed as early as 1933 (piperoxan), and the more potent tolazoline (early 1940s) and phentolamine (1950s) are still used today as nasal decongestants by virtue of their vasoconstricting properties.

In 1958, James Black joined the pharmaceutical division of ICI and attempted to develop a β -adrenaline antagonist for the treatment of angina pectoris. The result of this research was the β -blocker propranolol, launched in 1965. Since then, a large number of 3-aryloxy-2-hydroxypropylamines were developed and marketed for use in humans, mainly as antianginals, antihypertensives, antiarrhythmics, and, topically, for the treatment of glaucoma (lowering the intraocular pressure).

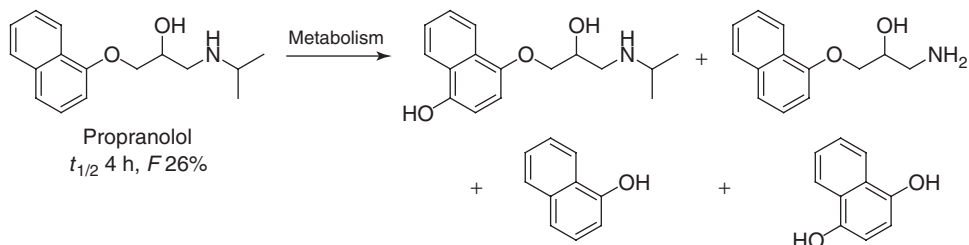
A comparison of the structures and pharmacokinetic (PK) properties of these compounds gives useful insight into how PK properties may be influenced by structural modifications and which chemical substructures are acceptable for a drug. The 3-aryloxy-2-hydroxypropylamine substructure is essential for biological activity and conserved in most of these compounds. Half-lives and oral bioavailabilities of β -blockers range from 1 to 22 h and from 5 to 100%, respectively, and β -blockers include highly lipophilic compounds, which readily cross the blood–brain barrier (such as propranolol), and more hydrophilic molecules, which are unable to attain high concentrations in the central nervous system (CNS) (e.g., atenolol).

51.1

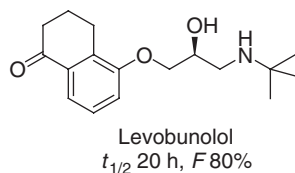
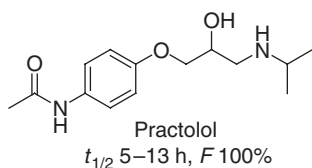
Metabolism

The hydrophilic 2-hydroxypropylamine substructure neither is metabolized by specific hormone-degrading enzymes nor is a good substrate of the less substrate-specific liver enzymes (CYP). Therefore, metabolism of β -blockers occurs mostly at the lipophilic aryloxy group. For instance, propranolol, alprenolol, penbutolol, and tertatolol are mainly hydroxylated at the 4-position of the aryloxy group (by liver enzymes) to yield monoalkylated hydroquinones (Scheme 51.1). Other metabolic pathways include dealkylation of the aryloxy and amino groups. Thus, first-pass

metabolism may be blocked (and oral bioavailability enhanced) by introducing polar or hydrophilic groups into the aryl substructure of β -blockers (Table 51.1).

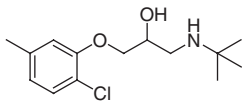
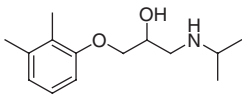
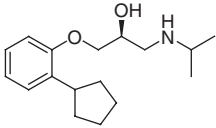


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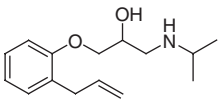
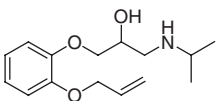
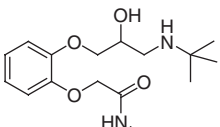
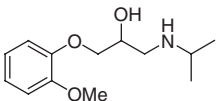
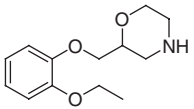
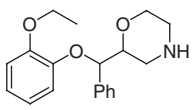
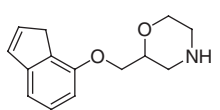
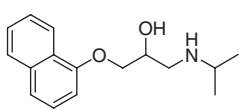


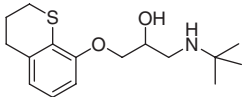
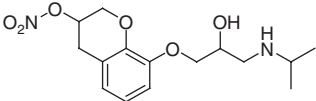
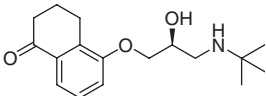
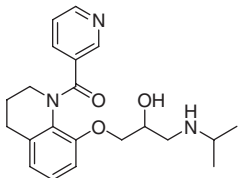
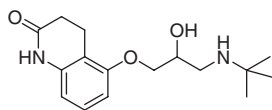
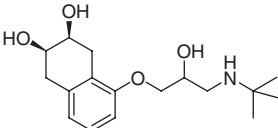
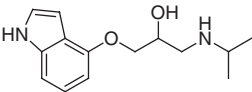
Scheme 51.1 Metabolism of propranolol.

Table 51.1 3-Aryloxy-2-hydroxypropylamines (β -adrenergic antagonists; antianginals, antihypertensives, antiarrhythmics, and antiglaucoma agents). V in L kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

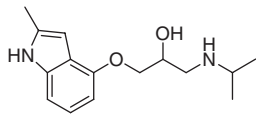
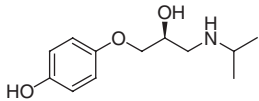
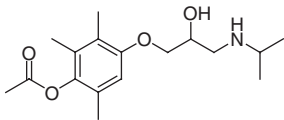
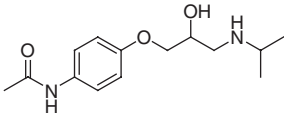
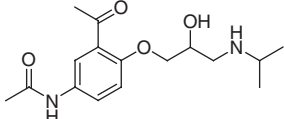
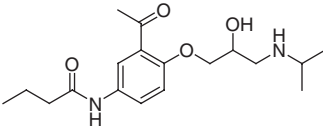
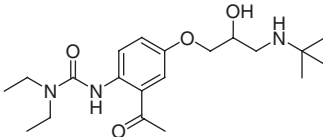
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ | $2.0 \pm 0.3 \text{ h}$ | V | – | BUPRANOLOL Metabolism: oxidation of ArMe to ArCO_2H |
| | F | <10% | CL | – | |
| | pb | 80–90% | Mwt | 271.8 | |
| | ur | <10% | PSA | 41.5 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log P | 3.4 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3 h | V | – | XIBENOLOL Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation ($t_{1/2}$ 3 h), 3- CH_3 hydroxylation, oxidation of 3- CH_3 to CO_2H |
| | F | – | CL | – | |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 237.3 | |
| | ur | 1% | PSA | 41.5 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log P | 2.6 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2–5 h | V | 2.3–7.2 | L-PENBUTOLOL Metabolites: glucuronide, 4-hydroxyphenoxy |
| | F | 90–95% | CL | 16.6 | |
| | pb | 80–98% | Mwt | 277.4 | |
| | ur | 4–6% | PSA | 41.5 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log P | 3.1 | |

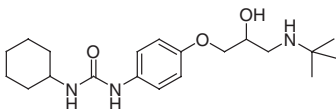
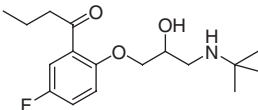
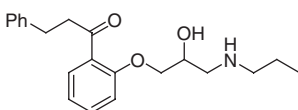
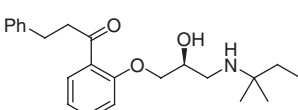
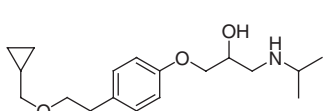
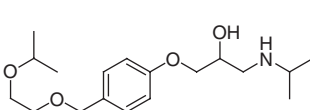
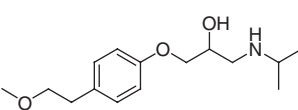
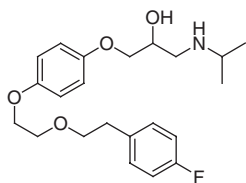
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 10–15% pb 80–90% ur <1% | V 3 CL 1.2 Mwt 249.4 PSA 41.5 Å ² log P 2.6 | ALPRENOLOL Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-dealkylation, then N-methylation, 4-hydroxylation, oxidative degradation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 24–60% pb 70–80% ur 2–5% | V 1.6 CL – Mwt 265.4 PSA 50.7 Å ² log P 2.1 | OXPRENOLOL Metabolism: glucuronidation, aromatic 4- and 5-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–8 h F – pb – ur 30–50% | V 2–3 CL 4–6 Mwt 310.4 PSA 79.8 Å ² log P 1.36 | CETAMOLOL Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, N-demethylation, O-dealkylation, oxidative deamination to aryloxyacetic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.1±0.3 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 239.3 PSA 50.7 Å ² log P 1.42 | MOPROLOL |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.3±1.0 h F 85±14% pb 88±3% ur 12–15% | V 0.73±0.28 CL 2.0±0.2 Mwt 237.3 PSA 39.7 Å ² log P 1.3 | VILOXAZINE Antidepressant Metabolism: aromatic 4- and 5-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13 h F 95% pb 92–97% ur 8–9% | V 0.92 CL 0.41–0.53 Mwt 313.4 PSA 39.7 Å ² log P 2.45 | REBOXETINE Antidepressant Metabolism: O-deethylation, aromatic hydroxylation (para to both alkoxy groups) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.2 h (rat) F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 231.3 PSA 30.5 Å ² log P 1.79 | INDELOXAZINE Antidepressant, nootropic Metabolism (rat): dihydroxylation of alkene, N-acetylation, oxidative degradation of morpholine ring |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.9±0.4 h F 26±10% pb 87±6% ur <1% | V 4.3±0.6 CL 16±5 Mwt 259.4 PSA 41.5 Å ² log P 3.0 | PROPRANOLOL Metabolism: 4-, 2-, 5-, and 7-hydroxylation of naphthyl, N-deisopropylation |

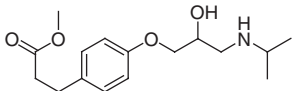
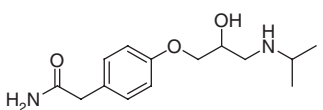
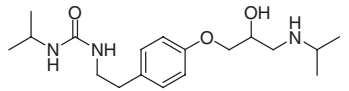
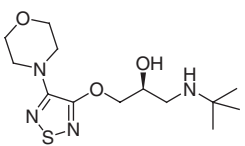
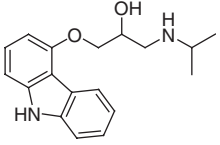
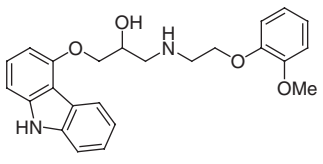
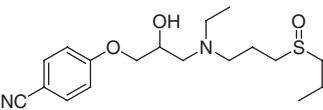
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±7 h F 60% pb 94% ur <1% | V 0.4–0.7 CL – Mwt 295.5 PSA 41.5 Å ² log P 3.2 | TERTATOLOL Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation, benzylic hydroxylation, sulfoxide formation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.7 h F 35% pb 34% ur 6.3% | V 5.6 CL – Mwt 326.5 PSA 105.8 Å ² log P 2.2 | NIPRADILOL Metabolism: hydrolysis of nitrate to alcohol, N-deisopropylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20 h F 80% pb – ur 14% | V 5.5 CL 0.16 Mwt 291.4 PSA 58.6 Å ² log P 2.6 | LEVOBUNOLOL Metabolism: reduction of keto group to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 h F 70% pb 70% ur 9% | V 0.67 CL 3.6 Mwt 369.5 PSA 74.7 Å ² log P 1.58 | NICAINOPROL Antiarrhythmic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–8 h F 85% pb 15% ur 50–70% | V 4.1 CL 8–10 Mwt 292.4 PSA 70.6 Å ² log P 2.0 | CARTEOLOL Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16±2 h F 34±5% pb 20±4% ur 73±4% | V 1.9±0.2 CL 2.9±0.6 Mwt 309.4 PSA 82.0 Å ² log P 1.2 | NADOLOL |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.6±0.6 h F 75±9% pb 51±3% ur 54±9% | V 2.3±0.9 CL 8.3±1.8 Mwt 248.3 PSA 57.3 Å ² log P 2.0 | PINDOLOL Metabolism: glucuronidation, aromatic hydroxylation (to indolin-2-one and 3-hydroxy), then sulfation, oxidative ring scission to anthranilic acid, oxidative deamination |

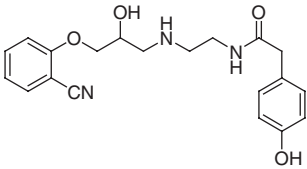
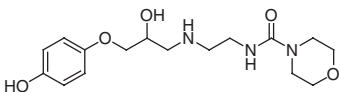
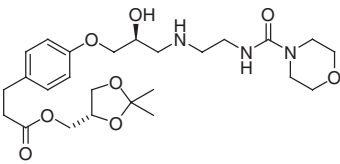
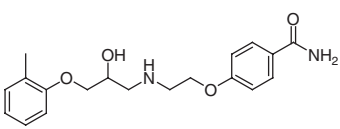
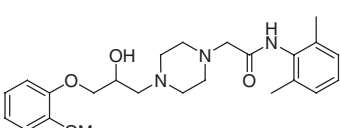
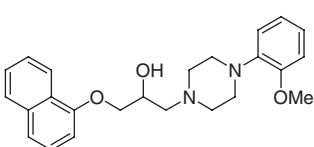
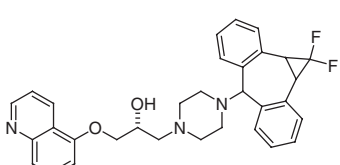
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.0 \pm 1.5 h F >95% pb 50–60% ur 2% | V 5.7 CL – Mwt 262.4 PSA 57.3 Å ² log P 2.2 | MEPINDOLOL Prodrug of mepindolol: O-benzoylmepindolol (bopindolol; $t_{1/2}$ mepindolol on oral dosing of bopindolol: 6–10 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.4 h F 45–55% pb <5% ur 30–60% | V 2.6–3.4 CL 21 Mwt 225.3 PSA 61.7 Å ² log P 1.3 | PRENALTEROL Cardiotonic Metabolism: O-sulfation, O-glucuronidation, oxidative deamination to 4-(hydroxyphenoxy)lactic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5–4.0 h* F 50%* pb 70%* ur 12%* | V 3.5* CL 15.7* Mwt 309.4 PSA 67.8 Å ² log P 2.28 | METIPRANOLOL *rapid deacetylation <i>in vivo</i> . values for desacetyl metabolite on oral dosing of metipranolol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–13 h F 100% pb 32% ur >90% | V 1.6 CL 0.14 Mwt 266.3 PSA 70.6 Å ² log P 1.0 | PRACTOLOL Metabolism: deacetylation, then N-hydroxylation of aniline |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10 \pm 2 h F 30–43% pb 6–9% ur 65% | V – CL 16 \pm 1 Mwt 308.4 PSA 87.7 Å ² log P 0.85 | DIACETOLOL Metabolite of acebutolol (see below) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.7 \pm 0.4 h F 37 \pm 12% pb 26 \pm 3% ur 30% | V 1.2 \pm 0.3 CL 6.8 \pm 0.8 Mwt 336.4 PSA 87.7 Å ² log P 2.3 | ACEBUTOLOL Metabolism: hydrolysis of amide, then acetylation to diacetolol (see above) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–6 h F 55–74% pb 25–30% ur 12–18% | V 4.5 CL – Mwt 379.5 PSA 90.9 Å ² log P 2.7 | CELIPROLOL Metabolism: N-deethylation |

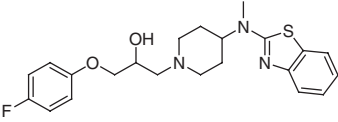
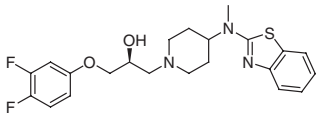
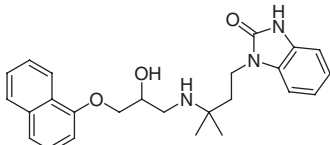
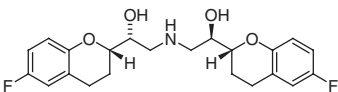
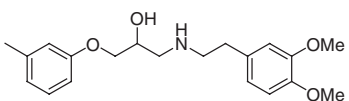
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–11 h F 52% pb 60% ur 28% | V 3.3 CL 4.9 Mwt 363.5 PSA 82.6 Å ² log P 3.7 | TALINOLOL Metabolism: hydroxylation of cyclohexyl group |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–10 h F – pb – ur 4% | V 3–8 CL 10–18 Mwt 311.4 PSA 58.6 Å ² log P 3.31 | BUTOFILOLOL Antihypertensive |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.5±2.1 h F 5–50% pb 85–95% ur <1% | V 3.6±2.1 CL 17±8 Mwt 341.5 PSA 58.6 Å ² log P 3.5 | PROPAFENONE CYP2D6 substrate Metabolism: N-depropylation, aromatic hydroxylation (para to OR) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5 h (iv) F 11–33% pb 98% ur – | V 1.2 CL 11 Mwt 369.5 PSA 58.6 Å ² log P 4.12 | (S)-DIPRAFENONE Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation (para to OR) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–22 h F 89±5% pb 55% ur 15% | V 4.9–9.8 CL 4.7 Mwt 307.4 PSA 50.7 Å ² log P 2.8 | BETAXOLOL Metabolism: oxidative deamination to aryloxyacetic acid, benzylic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±3 h F 91±10% pb 35±5% ur 63±8% | V 3.2±0.5 CL 3.7±0.7 Mwt 325.5 PSA 60.0 Å ² log P 2.3 | BISOPROLOL Metabolism: O-deisopropylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.2±0.2 h F 38±14% pb 11±1% ur 10±3% | V 4.2±0.7 CL 15±3 Mwt 267.4 PSA 50.7 Å ² log P 2.0 | METOPROLOL Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation, O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20 h F 57% pb – ur – | V 9 CL – Mwt 391.5 PSA 60.0 Å ² log P 3.7 | RO 31-1118 S-enantiomer: flusoxolol |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–10 min F – pb 41–55% ur <1% | V 1.9 ± 1.3 CL 170 ± 70 Mwt 295.4 PSA 67.8 \AA^2 log P 1.92 | ESMOLOL Metabolism: ester hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6 ± 2 h F $56 \pm 30\%$ pb 5–16% ur >90% | V 0.95 ± 0.15 CL 1.2–2.1 Mwt 266.3 PSA 84.6 \AA^2 log P 0.7 | ATENOLOL Metabolism: hydroxylation of benzylic CH_2 |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h F 27–46% pb – ur 56% (iv) | V 1.1 CL 4.5 Mwt 337.5 PSA 82.6 \AA^2 log P 1.66 | PAFENOLOL Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 ± 1 h F 30–50% pb $60 \pm 3\%$ ur 15% | V 2.1 ± 0.8 CL 7.3 ± 3.3 Mwt 316.4 PSA 79.8 \AA^2 log P 1.1 | TIMOLOL Metabolism: oxidation of morpholine to lactam, N -(2-hydroxyethyl)glycolamido, and to 2-hydroxyethylamino group, hydroxylation of <i>tert</i> -butyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8 h F <10% pb 81% ur <0.2% | V 10.9 CL – Mwt 298.4 PSA 57.3 \AA^2 log P 3.3 | CARAZOLOL Metabolism (dog): O-glucuronidation, oxidative deamination, aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 ± 2 h F 25% pb 95% ur <2% | V 1.5 ± 0.3 CL 8.7 ± 1.7 Mwt 406.5 PSA 75.7 \AA^2 log P 3.6 | CARVEDILOL Antihypertensive Metabolism: glucuronidation, O-demethylation, aryloxy hydroxylation, carbazole 2-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.3–3.6 h F 55% pb 20% ur 10% | V 2.6 CL 11 ± 1 Mwt 352.5 PSA 92.8 \AA^2 log P 1.79 | ALMOKALANT Antiarrhythmic Metabolism: N-dealkylation, O-glucuronidation, oxidation to sulfone, CH_3 hydroxylation of propyl chain |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17±9 h F 10±8% pb 50% ur 1–26% | V 6±3 CL 28±12 Mwt 369.4 PSA 114.6 Å ² log P 0.92 | EPANOLOL Antihypertensive, antianginal |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16±3 h F 5% pb 3% ur 73% | V 1.1–2.0 CL 3.7 Mwt 339.4 PSA 103.3 Å ² log P 0.38 | XAMOTEROL Metabolism: O-sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 min F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 509.6 PSA 128 Å ² log P 0.80 | LANDIOLOL Metabolism: ester hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.6 h F – pb 91% ur – | V 4 CL 14 Mwt 344.4 PSA 93.8 Å ² log P 1.7 | TOLAMOLOL Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 35–50% pb 63% ur <5% | V 1.3–2.8 CL 10 Mwt 427.5 PSA 74.3 Å ² log P 1.31 | RANOLAZINE Antianginal Metabolism: hydroxylation, glucuronidation, N-dealkylation, O-demethylation, O-dearylation, amide hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.4±3.2 h F 7–30% pb 95–97% ur – | V – CL 11±1.6 Mwt 392.5 PSA 45.2 Å ² log P 4.1 | NAFTOPIDIL Antihypertensive Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, piperazine dealkylation, O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 268–350 CL 108–158 Mwt 527.6 PSA 48.8 Å ² log P 4.30 | ZOSUQUIDAR P-glycoprotein inhibitor, adjunct antineoplastic Metabolism: N-oxidation and hydroxylation of quinoline |

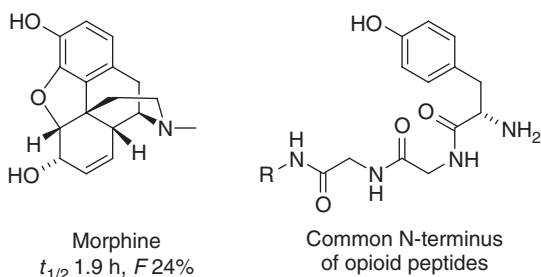
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 18±10 h | V | – | SABELUZOLE |
| | F | – | CL | 5.1 | Nootropic |
| | pb | 99% | Mwt | 415.5 | Metabolism: 6-hydroxylation of benzothiazole, glucuronidation |
| | ur | <0.5% | PSA | 77.1 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 4.26 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 15–24 h | V | 2.5–3.4 | LUBELUZOLE |
| | F | – | CL | 2.2–3.9 | Neuroprotectant |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 433.5 | Metabolism: 6-hydroxylation of benzothiazole, glucuronidation |
| | ur | – | PSA | 77.1 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 4.69 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 14±5 h | V | – | ADIMOLOL |
| | F | 33–52% | CL | 12±6 | Antihypertensive |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 474.0 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 79.3 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 4.20 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 10–50 h | V | 10–39 | NEBIVOLOL |
| | F | 12–96% | CL | 12.3 | Metabolism: aromatic and benzylic hydroxylation, N-dealkylation, glucuronidation |
| | pb | 98% | Mwt | 405.4 | |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 71 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 3.1 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.5–2.0 h | V | 1.5 | BEVANTOLOL |
| | F | 60% | CL | 4.4–6.9 | Antianginal, antihypertensive, antiarrhythmic |
| | pb | >95% | Mwt | 345.4 | Metabolism: aromatic |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 60.0 Å ² | 4-hydroxylation, oxidation of CCH ₃ to CCH ₂ OH and CCO ₂ H, then glucuronidation |
| | | | log P | 3.00 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

Opiates

Enkephalins, endorphins, and dynorphins are the three classes of known endogenous opioid peptides [1]. The N-terminus of all these peptides is H-Tyr-Gly-Gly-, and morphine and related strong analgesics are mimetics of this peptide fragment (Scheme 52.1).



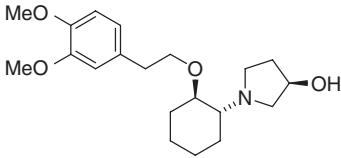
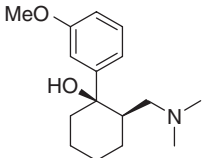
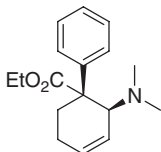
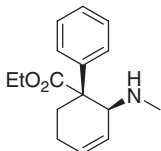
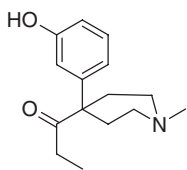
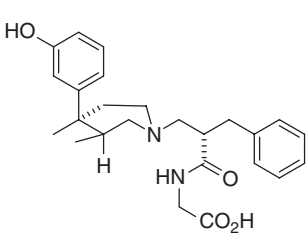
Scheme 52.1

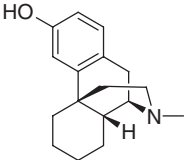
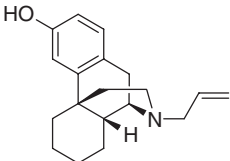
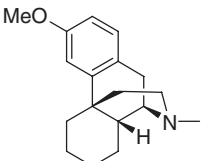
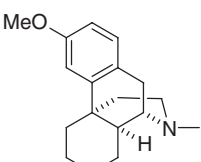
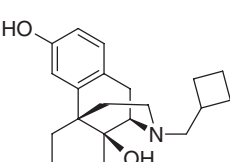
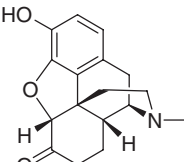
The opiate and opioid peptide binding receptors have been classified into three subtypes: μ -, κ -, and δ -receptors. These are mainly expressed in the central and peripheral nervous system (e.g., in the spinal cord) and in the ileum. Morphine, the main alkaloid of opium, is a μ -receptor agonist and its main effects in humans are analgesia, drowsiness, changes in mood, and mental clouding. Numerous analogs of morphine have been prepared with the aim of identifying less addicting and less constipating drugs, but these efforts have largely been unsuccessful. Opiates remain the treatment of choice for strong pain and, at low dose, for the treatment of cough. Table 52.1 includes only those compounds that are structurally related to morphine.

Reference

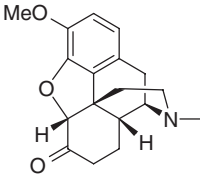
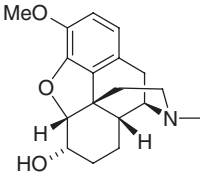
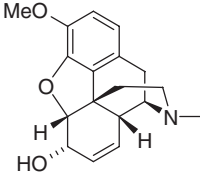
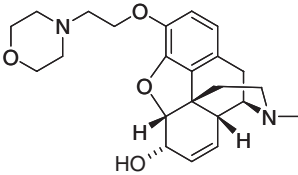
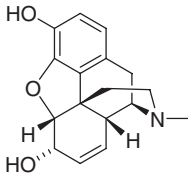
1. (a) Trescot, A.M., Datta, S., Lee, M., and Hansen, H. (2008) Opioid pharmacology. *Pain Physician*, **11**, S133–S153; (b) Sneader, W. (1998) The discovery of heroin. *Lancet*, **352**, 1697–1699.

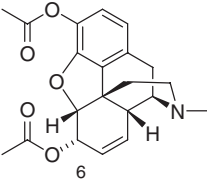
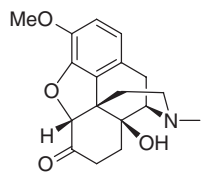
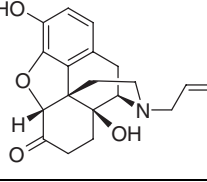
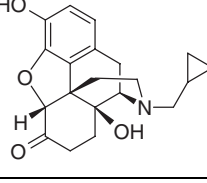
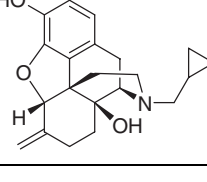
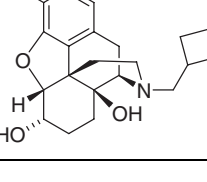
Table 52.1 Opiates and related compounds. V in l kg^{-1} , CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{kg}^{-1}$, Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | |
|---|--|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–8 h F 20% pb 53–63% ur – | V 0.4–0.8 CL – Mwt 349.5 PSA 51.2 Å ² $\log P$ 2.40 | VERNAKALANT Treatment of atrial fibrillation Metabolism: O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–6 h F 70–90% pb 20% ur 10–30% | V 2.9–3.7 CL 6.7–8.3 Mwt 263.4 PSA 32.7 Å ² $\log P$ 2.32 | TRAMADOL Analgesic, crosses bbb; active metabolite: O-desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 5–10 h); other metabolites: N-desmethyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ – F 8±5% pb 79% ur 0.2% | V 3.7 CL 18±4 Mwt 273.4 PSA 29.5 Å ² $\log P$ 4.62 | TILIDINE Analgesic, racemic Metabolism: N-demethylation to nortilidine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F 99%* pb 25% ur 2–3% | V 3±1 CL 12±2 Mwt 259.3 PSA 38.3 Å ² $\log P$ 4.75 | NORTILIDINE *on oral administration of tilidine; metabolite of tilidine Metabolism: N-demethylation to bisnortilidine ($t_{1/2}$ 5 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3±1 h F 34±16% pb – ur 3–10% | V/F 11.2 CL/F 26 Mwt 247.3 PSA 40.5 Å ² $\log P$ 0.80 | KETOBEMIDONE Analgesic; Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-demethylation, N-oxidation, aromatic 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–17 h F 1–19% pb 80–90% ur 2% | V 0.3–0.6 CL 6 Mwt 424.5 PSA 89.9 Å ² $\log P$ 3.38 | ALVIMOPAN Opiate antagonist; does not cross bbb Metabolism: amide hydrolysis |

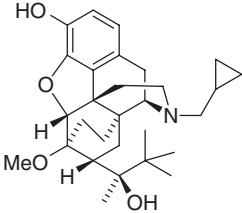
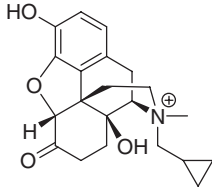
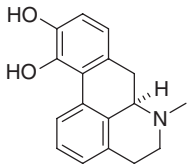
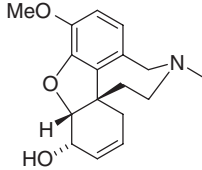
| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 11–15 h* | V | 10–13 | LEVORPHANOL |
| | F | – | CL | 10.5 | *iv |
| | pb | 40% | Mwt | 257.4 | Analgesic |
| | ur | 5% | PSA | 23.5 Å ² | Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-demethylation |
| | | | log P | 3.26 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1 h | V | – | LEVALLORPHAN |
| | F | Low | CL | – | Opioid antagonist |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 283.4 | Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-deallylation |
| | ur | – | PSA | 23.5 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 3.85 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3–6 h | V | – | LEVOMETHORPHAN |
| | F | – | CL | – | Analgesic |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 271.4 | Metabolism: O-demethylation to levorphanol |
| | ur | – | PSA | 12.5 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 3.89 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1–4 h | V | 5.0–6.4* | DEXTROMETHORPHAN |
| | F | 11% | CL | – | *dog |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 271.4 | Antitussive |
| | ur | – | PSA | 12.5 Å ² | Metabolism: O-demethylation to dextrorphanol ($t_{1/2}$ 3–4 h), N-demethylation |
| | | | log P | 3.89 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.5–5.8 h | V | 4–13 | BUTORPHANOL |
| | F | 5–17%* | CL | 41–43 | *intranasal: 48–70% |
| | pb | 83% | Mwt | 327.5 | Analgesic, antiussive; |
| | ur | 2–10% | PSA | 43.7 Å ² | crosses bbb |
| | | | log P | 3.54 | Metabolism: hydroxylation of cyclobutyl, N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2–3 h | V | 3–4 | HYDROMORPHONE |
| | F | 22–26% | CL | 15–28 | Analgesic, narcotic |
| | pb | 8–19% | Mwt | 285.3 | Metabolism: glucuronidation, reduction of ketone to alcohol |
| | ur | 6% | PSA | 49.8 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.13 | |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|--|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–6 h F 60–70% pb – ur 12% | V 3.3–4.7 CL 9.6 Mwt 299.4 PSA 38.8 Å ² log P 2.57 | HYDROCODONE Antitussive Metabolism: N- and O-demethylation, reduction of ketone to alcohol, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.3–4.5 h F 12–34% pb – ur 13–22% | V 1.0–1.3 CL 4 Mwt 301.4 PSA 41.9 Å ² log P 0.61 | DIHYDROCODEINE Analgesic, antitussive Metabolism: O- and N-demethylation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.9±0.7 h F 50±7% pb 7% ur <10% | V/F 2.6±0.3 CL/ F 11±2 Mwt 299.4 PSA 41.9 Å ² log P 1.39 | CODEINE Analgesic, antitussive Metabolism: O- and N-demethylation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 37±4 h F High pb 26% ur 30–50% | V 36–49 CL 10 Mwt 398.5 PSA 54.4 Å ² log P 0.56 | PHOLCODINE Antitussive Metabolism: N-demethylation, N-dealkylation of morpholine (to hydroxyethylmorphine) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.9±0.5 h F 24±12% pb 35±2% ur 4±5% | V 3.3±0.9 CL 24±10 Mwt 285.3 PSA 52.9 Å ² log P 0.87 | MORPHINE Analgesic, narcotic; active metabolite: 6-glucuronide ($t_{1/2}$ 4.5±1.5 h, ur 14±7%) |

| | | | | |
|---|---|----------------------------------|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 min (iv) F <35% pb – ur Negligible | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 1.0±0.5 175±74 369.4 65.1 Å ² 1.58 | HEROIN, DIACETYLMORPHINE Prodrug of morphine Metabolites: 6-monoacetylmorphine ($t_{1/2}$ 20 min), morphine, 6-glucuronide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–6 h F 60–87% pb 38–45% ur 13–19% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 2–4 11–19 315.4 59.0 Å ² 1.59 | OXYCODONE Analgesic Metabolism: N- and O-demethylation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1±0.6 h F 2% pb 32–46% ur Negligible | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 2.1 22 327.4 70.0 Å ² 1.78 | NALOXONE Narcotic antagonist Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-dealkylation, reduction of ketone to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.7±1.0 h F 5–40% pb 21% ur <1% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 19±5 48±6 341.4 70.0 Å ² 2.05 | NALTREXONE Narcotic antagonist Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-dealkylation, reduction of ketone to alcohol ($t_{1/2}$ 9 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–11 h F 40–50% pb 34–45% ur 3–8% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 8.2 15 339.4 52.9 Å ² 1.63 | NALMEFENE Narcotic antagonist Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.3±1.2 h F 16±8% pb 50% ur 4±2% | V CL Mwt PSA log P | 3.8±1.1 22±5 357.4 73.2 Å ² 1.22 | NALBUPHINE Analgesic, narcotic Metabolism: N-dealkylation, oxidation of secondary alcohol to ketone |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|--|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–7 h F 30%* pb 96% ur Negligible | V 1–5 CL 13–19 Mwt 467.6 PSA 62.2 Å ² log P 2.83 | BUPRENORPHINE *sublingual Analgesic Metabolism: N-dealkylation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.0–2.3 h F Low pb 11–15% ur 50% (sc) | V 1.1–2.6 CL 6.5–8.6 Mwt 356.4 PSA 66.8 Å ² log P –2.63 | METHYLNALTREXONE Narcotic antagonist, does not cross bbb; Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol, N-demethylation (<0.06% of dose) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 41±15 min* F 2% pb 94% ur <1% | V 1.6±0.5 CL 40±15 Mwt 267.3 PSA 43.7 Å ² log P 1.70 | APOMORPHINE *iv Emetic Metabolism: N-demethylation, O-sulfation, O-glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–8 h F 85–100% pb 17–18% ur 18–25% | V 2.6 CL 5.7 Mwt 287.4 PSA 41.9 Å ² log P –0.05 | GALANTAMINE Cholinesterase inhibitor Metabolism (by CYP2D6 and CYP3A4): N- and O-demethylation, N-oxidation |

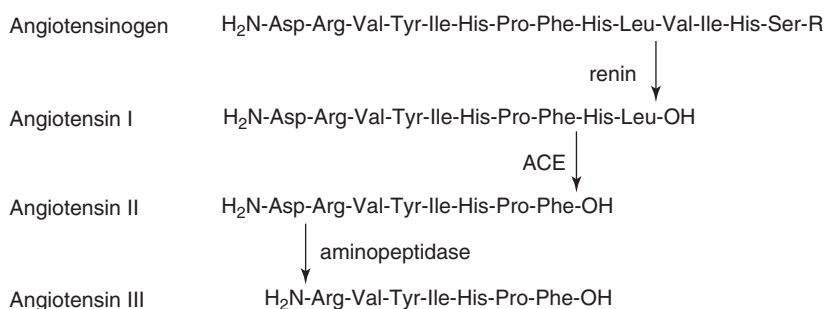
$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier.

53

***N*-(Carboxyalkyl)- α -Amino Acid Amides (Prils)**

The endogenous peptide angiotensin II strongly raises arterial blood pressure by inhibiting the excretion of water and Na^+ by the kidneys and by increasing the total peripheral vascular resistance. In the 1960s, some peptides present in viper venom were found to inhibit angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE). One of these peptides (teprotide, $\text{pyrGlu-Trp-Pro-Arg-Pro-Gln-Ile-Pro-Pro-OH}$) turned out to lower blood pressure more consistently than peptidic angiotensin II antagonists such as saralasin (1-sarcosine,8-isoleucine-angiotensin II). This discovery led to the search for orally available ACE inhibitors as antihypertensives.

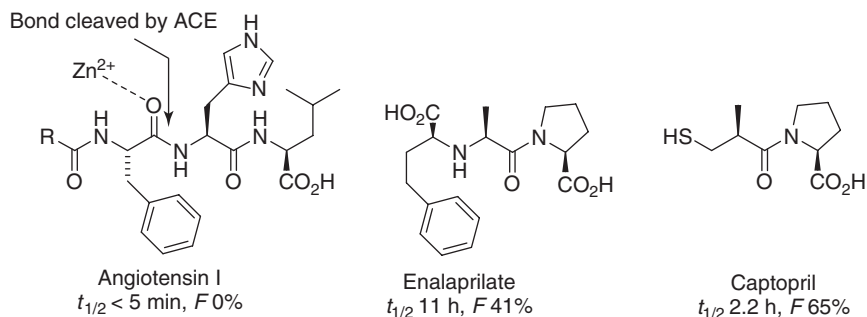
Angiotensin II is the product of the ACE-mediated cleavage of angiotensin I, which has only about 1% of the blood-pressure-increasing potency of angiotensin II (Scheme 53.1). Angiotensin III, which results from the degradation of angiotensin II by an aminopeptidase, is only 25% as potent as angiotensin II. The angiotensin receptors (AT_1 and AT_2) are G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) located at the surface of cells in various tissues.



Scheme 53.1 Biosynthesis of angiotensin peptides.

The first ACE inhibitors were peptidomimetics such as captopril (1977) and enalapril, which are analogs of the carboxy terminus of angiotensin I (Scheme 53.2). The mercapto and carboxyl groups in captopril/enalaprilate bind to a Zn^{2+} cation

in ACE, which coordinates to the carbonyl group of the Phe–His amide bond in angiotensin I to render it more electrophilic.



Scheme 53.2

Today, in addition to the ACE inhibitors given in Table 53.1, a large number of nonpeptidic angiotensin II antagonists have been developed (the “sartans,” Chapter 72) and several renin inhibitors (“kirens,” e.g., enalkiren) are being developed as antihypertensives (Chapter 55) [1].

Reference

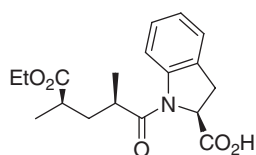
- Webb, R.L., Schiering, N., Sedrani, R., and Maibaum, J. (2010) Direct renin inhibitors as a new therapy for hypertension. *J. Med. Chem.*, **53**, 7490–7520.

Table 53.1 ACE inhibitors (prils) and related compounds. V in l kg^{-1} , CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{kg}^{-1}$, Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | |
|--|------------------------|--------------------------|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 11 h | V/F 1.7 ± 0.7 | ENALAPRIL |
| | F $41 \pm 15\%$ | CL/F 4.9 ± 1.5 | *diacid iv |
| | pb $< 50\%$ | Mwt 376.5 | Metabolism: hydrolysis to enalaprilate (diacid) |
| | ur $88 \pm 7\%^*$ | PSA 95.9 \AA^2 | |
| | | $\log P$ 3.25 | |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 21 ± 9 h | V/F 2.4 ± 1.4 | LISINOPRIL |
| | F $25 \pm 20\%$ | CL/F 4.2 ± 2.2 | |
| | pb $< 5\%$ | Mwt 405.5 | |
| | ur $94 \pm 6\%$ | PSA 133 \AA^2 | |
| | | $\log P$ 3.47 | |

| | | | |
|--|---|---|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 14±7 h <i>F</i> 28–44% <i>pb</i> 73%* <i>ur</i> 39±17% | <i>V</i> 1.4** <i>CL</i> 1.1±0.4 <i>Mwt</i> 416.5 <i>PSA</i> 95.9 Å ² <i>log P</i> 4.37 | RAMIPRIL *ester; diacid: 56%; **ester; diacid: 7.7 l kg ⁻¹ |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–2.2 h* <i>F</i> 50% <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> 12% | <i>V</i> 0.6 <i>CL</i> 0.15 <i>Mwt</i> 466.6 <i>PSA</i> 147 Å ² <i>log P</i> 5.88 | SPIRAPRIL *terminal $t_{1/2}$ 30–40 h |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7.6–14 h <i>F</i> 40% <i>pb</i> 85%* <i>ur</i> 9% | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 405.4 <i>PSA</i> 116 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.28 | IMIDAPRIL *ester |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h (ester)* <i>F</i> 40–70% <i>pb</i> 80%** <i>ur</i> 33% | <i>V</i> 0.3 (ester) <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 430.5 <i>PSA</i> 95.9 Å ² <i>log P</i> 4.90 | TRANDOLAPRIL *diacid: 10–24 h **ester; diacid: 65–95% |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–2.9 h* <i>F</i> 75%* <i>pb</i> 60%* <i>ur</i> 4–12%* | <i>V</i> 0.22* <i>CL</i> 1.2–2.3* <i>Mwt</i> 368.5 <i>PSA</i> 95.9 Å ² <i>log P</i> 4.10 | PERINDOPRIL *ester |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 25–30 h <i>F</i> 17–20% <i>pb</i> 10–20% <i>ur</i> 60–70% | <i>V</i> 0.16 <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 340.4 <i>PSA</i> 107 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.37 | PERINDOPRILATE |

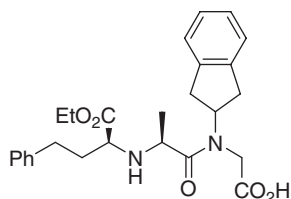
(continued overleaf)



$t_{1/2}$ 0.8 h*
F –
 pb –
 ur 21%**

V 0.56
 CL 3.1
 Mwt 333.4
 PSA 83.9 Å²
 log *P* 4.09

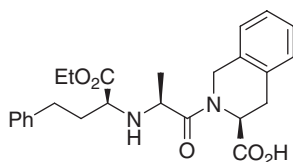
PENTOPRIL
 *ester; diacid: 3.9 h
 **ester; diacid: 40%



$t_{1/2}$ 0.4 h*
F >55%
 pb –
 ur –

V –
 CL 13.3
 Mwt 452.5
 PSA 95.9 Å²
 log *P* 4.48

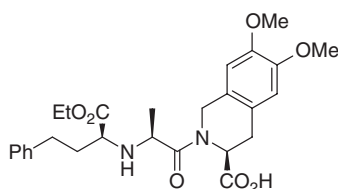
DELAPRIL
 *ester; diacid: 1.2 h
 Metabolism to diacid and
 5-hydroxyindane diacid ($t_{1/2}$ 1.4 h).
F: diacid after oral dosing of ester



$t_{1/2}$ 2.2±0.2 h
F 49±11%
 pb 97%
 ur 3%*

V/*F* 0.9**
 CL/*F* 26**
 Mwt 438.5
 PSA 95.9 Å²
 log *P* 4.79

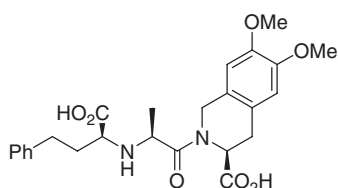
QUINAPRIL
 *ester; diacid: 28±9%
 **ester; diacid: 2.0±0.6



$t_{1/2}$ 1 h
F 22%
 pb 90%
 ur 1%

V –
 CL –
 Mwt 498.6
 PSA 114 Å²
 log *P* 4.77

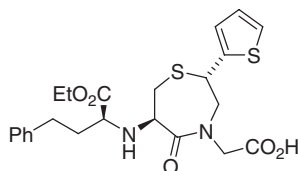
MOEXIPRIL
 Fast hydrolysis to
 moexiprilate in the liver and
 in tissue by carboxyesterases
 (not in the GI tract); *F*: diacid after
 oral administration of ester



$t_{1/2}$ 6±4 h
F 13%
 pb 50–70%
 ur 40%

V 2.8
 CL 3.3
 Mwt 470.5
 PSA 125 Å²
 log *P* 5.16

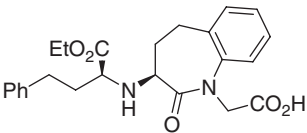
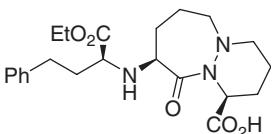
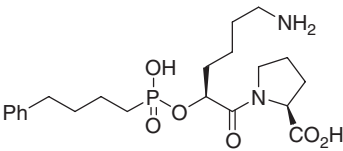
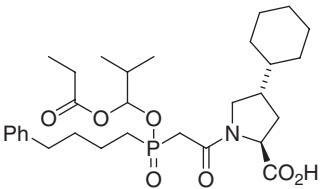
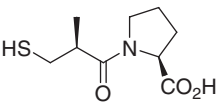
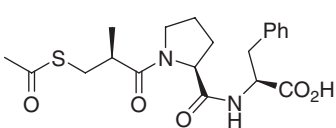
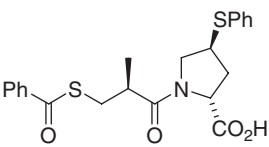
MOEXIPRILATE



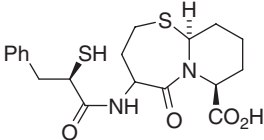
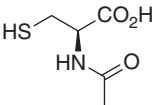
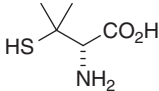
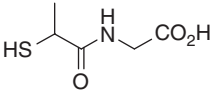
$t_{1/2}$ 1.5 h*
F 65%
 pb –
 ur 57%**

V –
 CL/*F* 34*
 Mwt 476.6
 PSA 149 Å²
 log *P* 6.57

TEMOCAPRIL
 *ester; diacid: 7–15 h
 **diacid

| | | | |
|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.7 h* F 28–37% pb 95–97% ur <1%** | V/F 0.12*** CL/F 0.3–0.4*** Mwt 424.5 PSA 95.9 Å ² $\log P$ 4.54 | BENAZEPRIL *ester; diacid: 10–22 h **ester; diacid: 18% ***diacid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 43±7 h F 47–75% pb 24%* ur 90–100%* | V 0.3–0.6 CL 1.8–4.1 Mwt 417.5 PSA 99.2 Å ² $\log P$ 2.21 | CILAZAPRIL *diacid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15 h F 67% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 440.5 PSA 140 Å ² $\log P$ 1.79 | CERONAPRIL Antihypertensive |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±1 h* F 36±7% pb >95%* ur 43±9%* – | V 0.13±0.03 CL 0.5±0.1 Mwt 563.7 PSA 120 Å ² $\log P$ 6.47 | FOSINOPRIL *diacid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.2±0.5 h F 38–65% pb 30±6% ur 38±11% | V 0.8±0.2 CL 12.0±1.4 Mwt 217.3 PSA 96.4 Å ² $\log P$ 0.27 | CAPTOPRIL ACE inhibitor, antihypertensive; Metabolism: oxidative disulfide formation, S-methylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h* F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 406.5 PSA 129 Å ² $\log P$ 0.19 | ALACEPRIL Prodrug of captopril *captopril on oral dosing of alacepril |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9 h* F 65–78% pb 88%** ur <10% | V 1.5** CL 20** Mwt 429.6 PSA 125 Å ² $\log P$ 5.62 | ZOFENOPRIL *ester; thiol: 4.6±1.0 h **thiol Metabolism: hydrolysis to thiol F : thiol after oral dosing of ester |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|-------|--------------------|-------------------------------------|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 14–19 h | V | – | OMAPATRILATE |
| | F | 30% | CL | – | Antihypertensive |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 408.5 | Metabolism: disulfide formation |
| | ur | – | PSA | 151 Å ² | with cysteine, S-methylation, |
| | | | log P | 1.65 | acyl glucuronidation, hydrolysis of |
| | | | | | exocyclic amide, oxidation to |
| | | | | | sulfoxides |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.3–6.0 h | V | 0.33–0.47 | N-ACETYLCYSTEINE |
| | F | 6–10% | CL | 3.5–14 | |
| | pb | 50% | Mwt | 163.2 | |
| | ur | 30% | PSA | 105 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | –0.70 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.5–3.0 h | V | – | PENICILLAMINE |
| | F | 40–70% | CL | 10.7 | |
| | pb | 80% | Mwt | 149.2 | |
| | ur | 40% | PSA | 102 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 0.85 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 19–53 h | V | – | TIOPRONIN |
| | F | 63% | CL | – | Antidote for heavy-metal poisoning, |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 163.2 | mutolytic, hepatoprotectant |
| | ur | – | PSA | 105 Å ² | Metabolite: mixed |
| | | | log P | –0.67 | disulfide with cysteine |

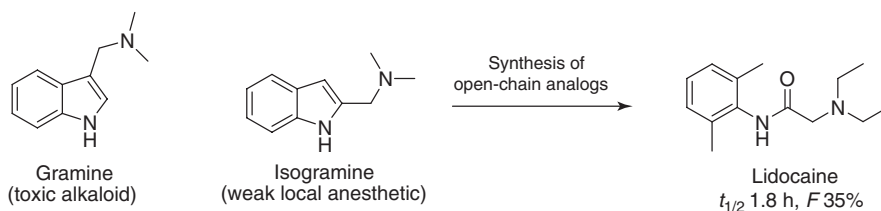
$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; GI, gastrointestinal.

All data except calculated values (unless otherwise noted): acid on oral dosing of ester.

54

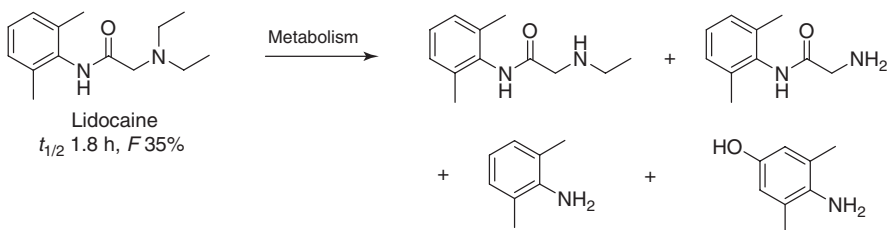
Anilides and Amides of Glycine

N-(2,6-Dimethylphenyl)glycine amide derivatives are important local anesthetics that are less irritating and safer than procaine (Table 54.1). The first member of this group, lidocaine, was discovered in the 1940s at the University of Stockholm. The chemist Holger Erdtman, trying to elucidate the structure of the alkaloid gramine, came to prepare isogramine instead. A common practice of organic chemists at that time was to taste newly synthesized products, and while doing so, Erdtman's tongue was numbed. A project was started to identify an analog of isogramine, suitable as local anesthetic. This research led to the discovery and marketing by Astra of lidocaine in 1948 (Scheme 54.1).



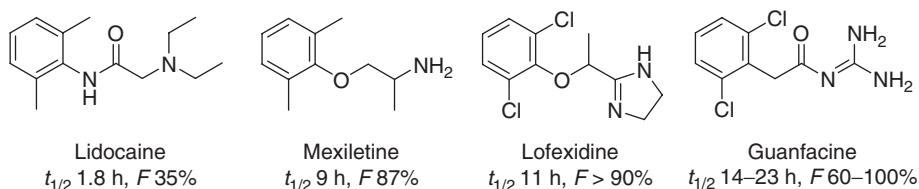
Scheme 54.1 The origin of lidocaine.

Although methylanilines, including 2-methyl- and 2,6-dimethylaniline, are suspected carcinogens, and the typical metabolic reactions of glycyanilides include amide hydrolysis, lidocaine and related anilides are relatively safe drugs, even after parenteral administration. Typical metabolic transformations, exemplified by those of lidocaine, are shown in Scheme 54.2.



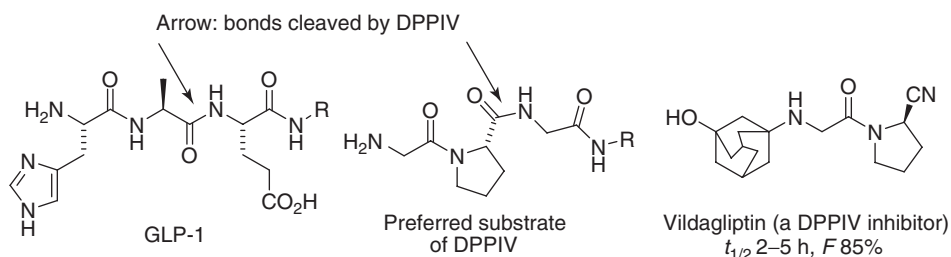
Scheme 54.2 Metabolism of lidocaine.

Structurally related to lidocaine are the antiarrhythmic mexiletine and the antihypertensives lofexidine and guanfacine (Scheme 54.3). Their improved pharmacokinetics (PK) is mainly due to the absence of the metabolically labile tertiary amine and the replacement of the xylyl group by a dichlorophenyl group.



Scheme 54.3 Drugs structurally related to lidocaine.

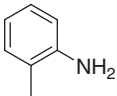
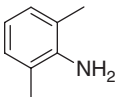
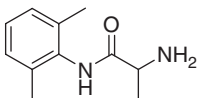
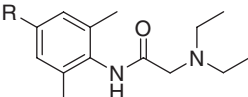
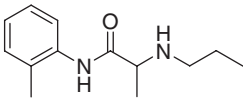
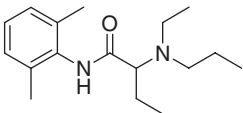
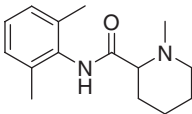
A further class of therapeutically relevant amides of glycine are the DPPIV (dipeptidylpeptidase IV) inhibitors. DPPIV is the enzyme that deactivates GLP-1 (glucagonlike peptide 1) by cleaving off the N-terminal dipeptide of GLP-1 (H-His-Ala-OH) (Scheme 54.4). GLP-1 is normally released when nutrients reach the intestine and strongly potentiates insulin secretion by acting on receptors at pancreatic β -cells. DPPIV inhibitors enhance the levels of GLP-1 and can, therefore, be used to treat type II diabetes.



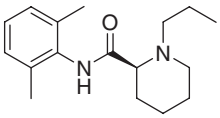
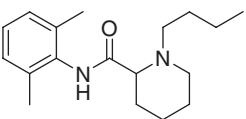
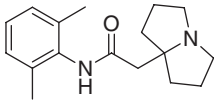
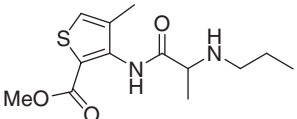
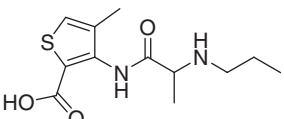
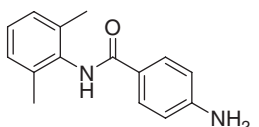
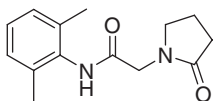
Scheme 54.4

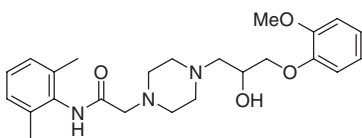
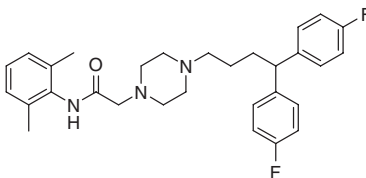
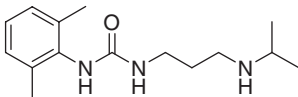
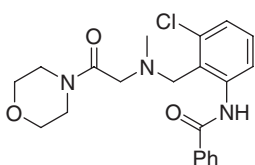
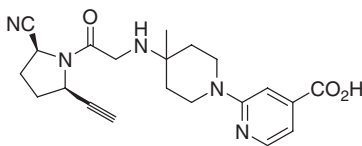
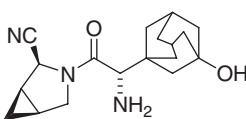
The first DPPIV inhibitors, such as vildagliptin, were mimetics of the N-terminus of preferred substrates of this enzyme (H-Gly-Pro-R, H-His-Ala-R), in which the target amide bond was replaced by a nitrile. DPPIV is a prolyl oligopeptidase, which preferentially cleaves N-terminal dipeptides from peptides with alanine or proline at the penultimate position. Later, high-throughput screening provided peptide-unrelated leads, which led to DPPIV inhibitors such as alogliptin, carmegliptin, and linagliptin.

Table 54.1 Glycyanilides and related compounds. V in l kg⁻¹, CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹, Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

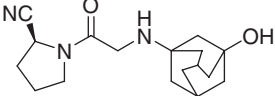
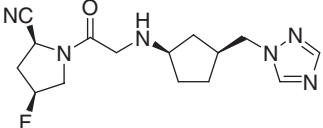
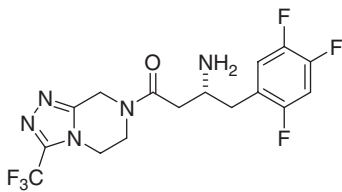
| | | | |
|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4±1 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 107.2 PSA 26.0 Å ² log P 1.38 | o-TOLUIDINE Metabolite of prilocaine, suspected human carcinogen Metabolism: N-oxidation to hydroxylamine and nitrosotoluene |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±4 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 121.2 PSA 26.0 Å ² log P 1.63 | 2,6-DIMETHYLANILINE Metabolite of some local anesthetics, suspected human carcinogen |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14±2 h F 89±5% pb 10±15% ur 38±7% | V 3.0±0.2 CL 2.6±0.5 Mwt 192.3 PSA 55.1 Å ² log P 0.81 | TOCAINIDE Antiarrhythmic, racemic; (R : $t_{1/2}$ 17±6 h; S : $t_{1/2}$ 10±4 h) Metabolites: carbamoyl glucuronide ($t_{1/2}$ 13 h), lactoxylidide ($t_{1/2}$ 29 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.8±0.4 h F 35±11% pb 70±5% ur 2±1% | V 1.1±0.4 CL 9.2±2.4 Mwt 234.3 PSA 32.3 Å ² log P 2.20 | LIDOCAINE, LIGNOCAINE (R = H); TRIMECAINE (R = CH ₃ ; PK identical to lidocaine); antiarrhythmic, local anesthetic; Metabolism: N-deethylation, cyclization to imidazolidone, hydrolysis of amide, aromatic 3- and 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 20–40% pb 28–40% ur <5% | V 3–4 CL 29–34 Mwt 220.3 PSA 41.1 Å ² log P 2.03 | PRILOCAINE Local anesthetic Metabolism: amide hydrolysis, aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F – pb 94% ur <1% | V 2 CL 17 Mwt 276.4 PSA 32.3 Å ² log P 3.57 | ETIDOCAINE Local anesthetic Metabolism: N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 h F – pb 78% ur 5–10% | V 1.0–1.3 CL 12.3 Mwt 246.4 PSA 32.3 Å ² log P 1.78 | MEPIVACAINE Local anesthetic Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, N-demethylation |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.8 h (iv)* F 56±18%** pb 90–94% ur 1% | V 0.6–0.8 CL 5–8 Mwt 274.4 PSA 32.3 Å ² log P 2.80 | ROPIVACAINE *4.2 h (epidural), 2.6 h (rectal) **rectal Local anesthetic; does not racemize <i>in vivo</i> ; Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation (CYP1A2), N-dealkylation (CYP3A4) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.4±1.2 h F – pb 95±1% ur <4% | V 0.9±0.4 CL 7.1±2.8 Mwt 288.4 PSA 32.3 Å ² log P 3.31 | BUPIVACAINE Local anesthetic Metabolism: N-dealkylation (CYP3A) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–9 h F – pb 30% ur 75–86% | V 1.48 CL 3.8 Mwt 272.4 PSA 32.3 Å ² log P 1.88 | PILSICAINIDE Antiarrhythmic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25 min F – pb 57–73% ur 1.4% | V 5±3 CL 127±54 Mwt 284.4 PSA 95.7 Å ² log P 2.22 | ARTICAINE, CARTICAINE Local anesthetic Inactive metabolite: articainic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.4±0.3 h F – pb 60–90% ur – | V 0.5–0.7 CL 2.7±0.5 Mwt 270.4 PSA 107 Å ² log P 2.38 | ARTICAINIC ACID Main metabolite of articaine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.5 h (dog) F – pb – ur – | V 1.2 (dog) CL – Mwt 240.3 PSA 55.1 Å ² log P 1.90 | AMELTOLIDE Anticonvulsant Metabolism: NH ₂ acetylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–6 h F – pb – ur 5% | V 0.5–0.7 CL 1.5–2.2 Mwt 246.3 PSA 49.4 Å ² log P 0.64 | NEFIRACETAM Nootropic Metabolism: hydroxylation of pyrrolidone (mainly at position 5) |

| | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 35–50% pb 63% ur <5% | V 1.3–2.8 CL 10 Mwt 427.5 PSA 74.3 Å ² log P 1.31 | RANOLAZINE Antianginal; Metabolism: hydroxylation, glucuronidation, N-dealkylation, O-demethylation, O-dearylation, amide hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 22 h F 35–40% pb – ur <5% | V 10 CL – Mwt 491.6 PSA 35.6 Å ² log P 5.42 | LIDOFLAZINE Calcium channel antagonist Metabolism: N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–11 h F 73–84% pb 14–20% ur 84% | V 1.2–3.4 CL 4.5–11.1 Mwt 263.4 PSA 53.2 Å ² log P 2.78 | RECAINAM Antiarrhythmic Metabolites: desisopropyl, <i>p</i> -hydroxy |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–9 h F 65% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 401.9 PSA 61.9 Å ² log P 2.73 | FOMINO BEN Antitussive Metabolism: N-debenzoylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h* F 11%* pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 395.5 PSA 110 Å ² log P 0.61 | ABT-279 *monkey DPPIV inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 51%* pb <30% ur 12–29% | V 2.7 CL 14.5* Mwt 315.4 PSA 90.4 Å ² log P –0.14 | SAXAGLIPTIN *monkey DPPIV inhibitor, antidiabetic; active metabolite: 5-hydroxy ($t_{1/2}$ 3–7 h) (hydroxylation at C ₃ CH) |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|--------|--------------|---------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2–5 h | V | 1 | VILDAGLIPTIN |
| | <i>F</i> | 85% | CL | 12 | DPPIV inhibitor, antidiabetic |
| | pb | 9% | Mwt | 303.4 | Metabolism: hydrolysis of nitrile to acid, amide |
| | ur | 22% | PSA | 76.4 Å ² | hydrolysis, glucuronidation, oxidation of pyrrolidine |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | –0.14 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.2 h* | V | – | MELOGLIPTIN |
| | <i>F</i> | 94%* | CL | 16 | *monkey |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 320.4 | DPPIV inhibitor, |
| | ur | – | PSA | 86.8 Å ² | antidiabetic |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | –1.34 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 8–14 h | V | 3 | SITAGLIPTIN |
| | <i>F</i> | 87% | CL | – | DPPIV inhibitor, |
| | pb | 38% | Mwt | 407.3 | antidiabetic |
| | ur | 79% | PSA | 77.0 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 1.30 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; *F*, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; DPPIV, dipeptidylpeptidase IV.

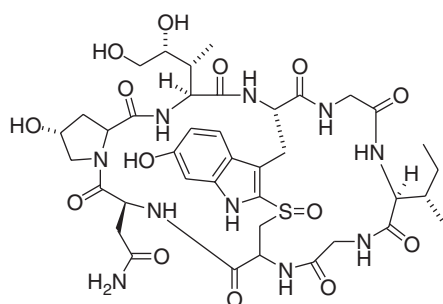
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Peptides, Peptidomimetics, and Related Oligoamides

The use of peptides as drugs seems attractive because of their predictable and safe metabolism and their high potency and selectivity. However, few clinically viable peptides have been identified, and most have to be administered parenterally. A notable exception is the gonadotropin agonists (e.g., buserelin), which are modified decapeptides suitable for nasal dosing [1]. Chemically modified peptides are mainly used as hormone analogs or as protease inhibitors.

Reasons for the scant use of peptide-based drugs are mainly their poor pharmacokinetic (PK) properties, in particular, their low oral bioavailability, poor membrane penetration, and quick enzymatic degradation. Moreover, unnatural peptides with a molecular weight above $700\text{--}1000\text{ g mol}^{-1}$ can elicit an immune response. Proteins, though, can have plasma half-lives of several days (e.g., albumin or antibodies).

Peptide bonds can be stabilized toward enzymatic cleavage with the aid of unnatural amino acids, such as *N*-alkylamino acids or aminoisobutyric acid, or by conformational constraints, for example, by cyclization [2]. Alternatively, amino- or carboxypeptidase activity may be blocked by modifying the terminal functional groups of a peptide, if the target allows this. Many natural, peptide-based poisons (e.g., amanitin, a mushroom poison, Scheme 55.1) are mono- or polycyclic peptides with high oral bioavailability.



α -Amanitin
 $t_{1/2}$ (dog) 0.5–1.0 h

Scheme 55.1

Renal excretion may be delayed and membrane permeability enhanced by lipophilization. Acylation with fatty acids, for instance, increases the affinity of peptides to albumin and keeps them from being excreted renally. This lipophilization can be permanent or transient, that is, the acylated peptide may be a prodrug of the peptide. The absorption of peptides from the small intestine may be enhanced by alkylating the NH groups or replacing them with non-hydrogen-bond-donating groups [3].

The membrane permeability and enzymatic stability of peptides may also be enhanced by glycosylation. Although glycosylated peptides are less lipophilic than the corresponding nonglycosylated peptides, transport through membranes can be brought about by active transport mechanisms or endocytosis.

Finally, the PK and other properties of peptides (and proteins) may be improved by conjugation to a polymer, for example, poly(ethylene glycol) ("pegylation") [4]. Pegylation delays renal clearance and enzymatic degradation, enhances solubility, and reduces immunogenicity of peptides and proteins.

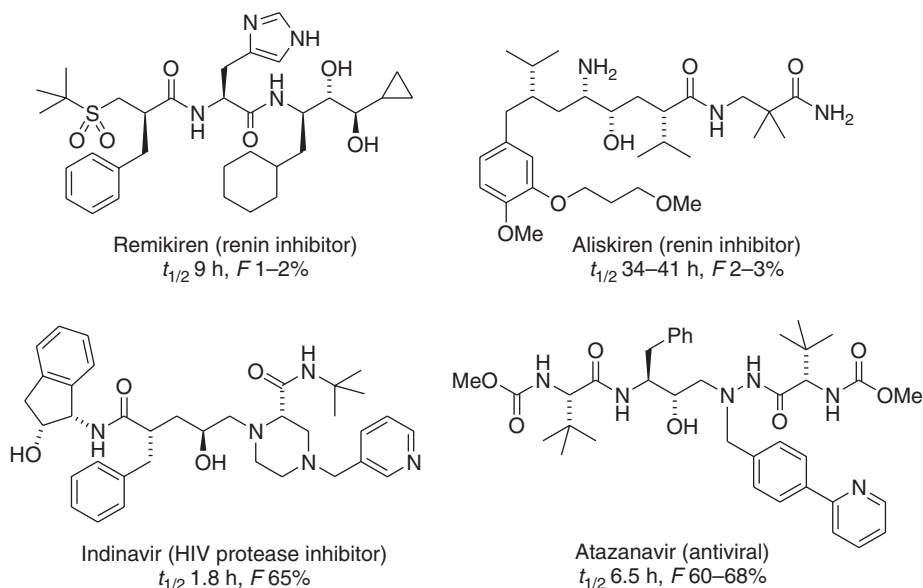
55.1

Peptidomimetics

Peptides based on proteinogenic amino acids alone are usually not well suited as drugs, because of their poor absorption from the gastrointestinal tract and low metabolic stability. Moreover, the high polar surface area (PSA) of peptides also keeps them from crossing other membranes or the blood–brain barrier (bbb). Unnatural peptides with a molecular weight $> 700 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ may, furthermore, induce an immune response.

When the only lead available in a project is a peptide, medicinal chemists often end up spending huge resources on the discovery of a peptidomimetic with acceptable PK properties, often without success.

One strategy to improve the PK properties of peptides is to replace peptide bonds by an unnatural substructure, not prone to enzymatic degradation. The simplest way to achieve this is by using *N*-methylamino acids; all other strategies usually involve multistep, expensive syntheses of structurally complex intermediates. Particularly difficult is the rational design of inhibitors for endopeptidases, which often recognize several amino acid side chains and are highly selective. Four examples of hydroxyethylene peptidomimetics are shown in Scheme 55.2. The development of such drugs is complicated not only by the difficulty of attaining acceptable PK properties but also by the high cost of producing the final drug.



Scheme 55.2 Peptidomimetics.

Because it is so difficult to turn a peptide into an orally available small molecule with good PK (see Table 55.1), even weak but structurally less complex hits resulting from a high-throughput screening should always be evaluated carefully. It is usually much easier to improve potency, selectivity, and the pharmacokinetics of a weak, nonpeptidic hit than to convert a potent and selective peptide into a compound with acceptable pharmacokinetics (see, e.g., the development of losartan, Chapter 72). In general, weak hits devoid of problematic functional groups are more promising than potent hits containing such groups (e.g., highly polar, basic, acidic, chemically reactive, or metabolically questionable functional groups).

55.2

Thrombin Inhibitors and Related Compounds

The oldest, but still popular, antithrombotics are warfarin, heparin, and aspirin. With the goal of identifying more selective antithrombotics with fewer side effects, potent thrombin inhibitors with suitable PK are being sought [5]. Unfortunately, the drugs resulting from these endeavors are mainly peptidomimetics, most of them amidines or guanidines of low oral bioavailability (Table 55.2).

Blood coagulation is a complex process, involving various different enzymes. In the last step of the coagulation cascade, the protease thrombin cleaves two peptides from (soluble) fibrinogen to generate fibrin, which undergoes oligomerization to form the clot. As most coagulation factors, thrombin cleaves an Arg-X bond in fibrinogen, but not Lys-X or other closely related peptide bonds. Therefore, it has

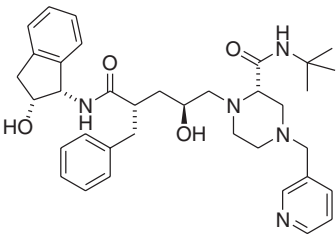
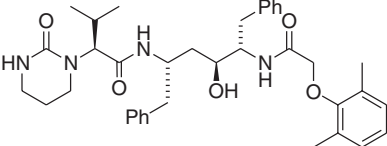
been difficult to find thrombin inhibitors devoid of an amidine or guanidine group. Most of the drugs known today must be dosed parenterally.

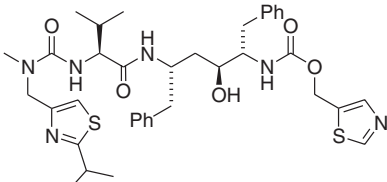
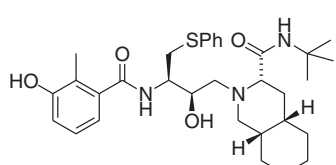
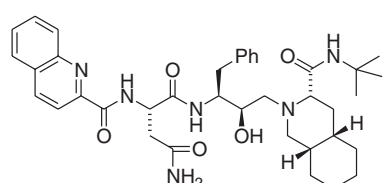
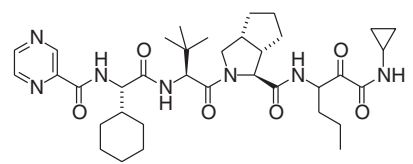
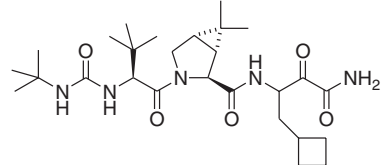
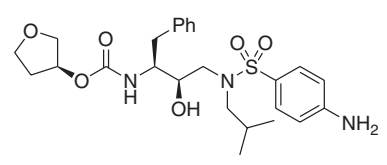
One way to improve the oral bioavailability of these highly basic compounds is to lower the basicity of the amidine/guanidine group. This can, for instance, be achieved by alkoxycarbonylation or by using *N*-hydroxyamidines, which are converted *in vivo* into the corresponding amidines.

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Table 55.1 Peptides and peptidelike compounds. V in l kg^{-1} , CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$, Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | | | |
|---|-------------|-------------------------|--------------|---------------------|----------------------------------|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | $1.8 \pm 0.4 \text{ h}$ | V | 0.82 | INDINAVIR |
| | F | 65% | CL | 18 | Antiviral |
| | pb | 61% | Mwt | 613.8 | Metabolism: pyridine |
| | ur | 10–12% | PSA | 118 \AA^2 | N-glucuronidation, |
| | | | $\log P$ | 2.88 | pyridine <i>N</i> -oxidation, |
| | | | | | 3'-hydroxylation at indane, |
| | | | | | 4-hydroxylation of |
| | | | | | phenylmethyl, |
| | | | | | <i>N</i> -depyridomethylation of |
| | | | | | piperazine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 5–6 h | V | 1.3 | LOPINAVIR |
| | F | Low* | CL | 1.5–1.8 | * <i>rat</i> : 25% |
| | pb | 98–99% | Mwt | 628.8 | Antiviral |
| | ur | 2.2% | PSA | 120 \AA^2 | Active metabolites: 4-oxo, |
| | | | $\log P$ | 6.26 | 4-hydroxy |

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F 75% (rat) pb 98–99% ur <10% | V 0.3–0.6 CL – Mwt 720.9 PSA 202 Å ² log P 5.28 | RITONAVIR Antiviral Metabolism: N-demethylation of urea, carbamate hydrolysis, hydroxylation at (CH ₃) ₂ CHC(=N)S |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–5 h F 47–88% pb >98% ur 1–2% | V 2–7 CL 6–16 Mwt 567.8 PSA 127 Å ² log P 7.28 | NELFINAVIR, AG-1343 Antiviral (HIV) Metabolism: hydroxylation of <i>tert</i> -butyl, 4'-hydroxylation to catechol, then 3'-O-methylation, oxidation to sulfoxide (minor pathway) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–15 h (iv) F 1–9% pb 97% ur 1–3% | V 3.6 CL 13 Mwt 670.8 PSA 167 Å ² log P 4.44 | SAQUINAVIR Antiviral (HIV), low absorption from GI, high first-pass effect Metabolism: hydroxylation of cyclohexane and <i>tert</i> -butyl groups |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–11 h F – pb 59–76% ur 1% | V 3.9 CL – Mwt 679.9 PSA 180 Å ² log P 3.93 | TELAPREVIR Antiviral (hepatitis C) Metabolite: pyrazinecarboxylic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–15 h F 30% (dog) pb 75% ur 3% | V/F 12 CL 41 Mwt 519.7 PSA 151 Å ² log P 2.05 | BOCEPREVIR Hepatitis C virus protease inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–11 h F 35–90%* pb 90% ur <3% | V 5–7 CL – Mwt 505.6 PSA 140 Å ² log P 4.20 | AMPRENAVIR *dog Antiviral (HIV) Metabolism: oxidation of tetrahydrofuran and aniline, N-dealkylation, carbamate hydrolysis; prodrug: O-phosphate (fosamprenavir) |

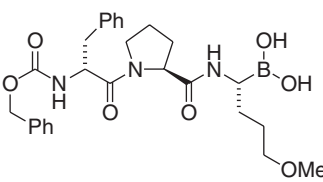
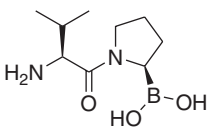
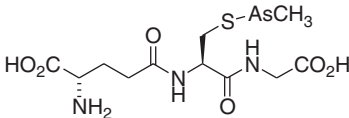
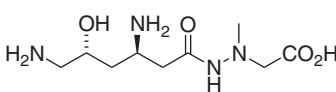
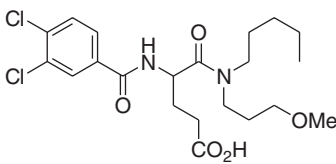
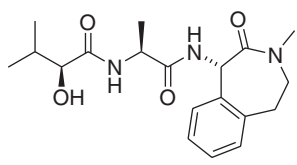
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|--|---|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 15 h F 37% pb 95% ur 8% | V 1.4±0.9 CL 8 Mwt 547.7 PSA 149 Å ² $\log P$ 3.94 | DARUNAVIR Antiviral (HIV) Metabolism: carbamate hydrolysis, isobutyl hydroxylation, aniline hydroxylation, benzylic hydroxylation, glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 10–40 min F Low pb 95–99% ur – | V 0.7–15 CL 13–285 Mwt 719.9 PSA 158 Å ² $\log P$ 6.71 | CARFILZOMIB Proteasome inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–3.0 h F 30% pb 0% ur 8% | V 0.8* CL – Mwt 258.3 PSA 107 Å ² $\log P$ –1.49 | IDRAPRIL *dog iv ACE inhibitor, antihypertensive Metabolism: reductive cleavage of N-O bond, hydrolysis of amide |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 349–743 h* F Low pb 96% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 477.6 PSA 161 Å ² $\log P$ 3.30 | BATIMASTAT *ip Matrix metalloproteinase inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 8–10 h F 43% pb 90% ur 9% | V – CL – Mwt 436.6 PSA 110 Å ² $\log P$ 2.06 | CIPEMASTAT, TROCADE Matrix metalloproteinase inhibitor for treatment of rheumatoid arthritis Metabolism: glucuronidation |

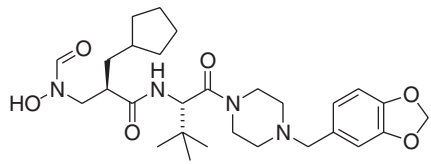
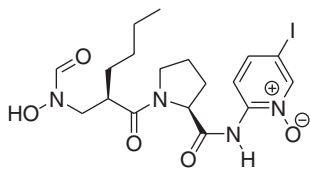
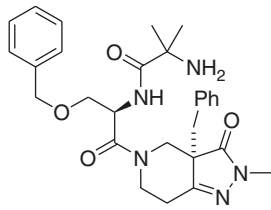
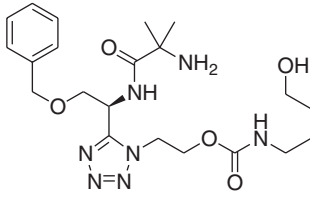
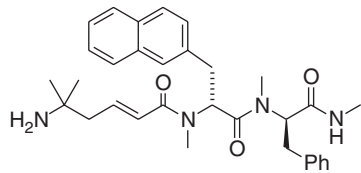
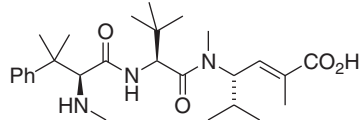
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|--|---|---|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1–4 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 406.5 PSA 125 Å ² $\log P$ 2.24 | TOSEDOSTAT Orally available antineoplastic, aminopeptidase inhibitor; active metabolite: acid ($t_{1/2}$ 6–11 h) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5–10 h F Good pb – ur 2–3% | V 3.4 CL – Mwt 331.4 PSA 128 Å ² $\log P$ 1.31 | MARIMASTAT Matrix metalloproteinase inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1–8 h F 44% (rat) pb 57–80% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 393.5 PSA 108.8 Å ² $\log P$ 1.37 | MMI-270 Matrix metalloproteinase inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 40 h F 42%* pb – ur – | V 2.2** CL 3.4** Mwt 520.9 PSA 128 Å ² $\log P$ 3.97 | BMS-708163 *dog **estimate based on allometric scaling; γ-secretase inhibitor (treatment of Alzheimer disease) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 66–93 h F 18%* pb – ur – | V 0.7* CL – Mwt 525.6 PSA 107 Å ² $\log P$ 2.92 | ODANACATIB *monkey Cathepsin K inhibitor for treatment of osteoporosis Metabolism: CH ₃ -hydroxylation, demethylation of sulfone, addition of glutathione to nitrile |

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| | | | |
|--|--|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6.5 h F 60–68% pb 86% ur 6% | V 1.4 CL 3.3 Mwt 704.9 PSA 171 Å ² $\log P$ 5.20 | ATAZANAVIR Antiviral Metabolism: N-debenzylation, carbamate hydrolysis, hydroxylation, alcohol oxidation to ketone |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5 h (iv) F Low pb – ur – | V 0.3 CL 2.6 Mwt 869.7 PSA 176 Å ² $\log P$ 3.55 | OLCEGEPANT CGRP antagonist, antimigraine |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5–8 h F 35% (dog) pb 94% ur <5% | V – CL – Mwt 566.5 PSA 97.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.26 | TELCAGEPANT, MK-0974 CGRP antagonist, antimigraine Metabolism: oxidation to pyridine-N-oxide |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 13 h F 100% pb <15% ur 40% | V 0.6 CL – Mwt 250.3 PSA 67.4 Å ² $\log P$ 0.90 | LACOSAMIDE Antiepileptic Metabolism: O-demethylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6–19 h (iv) F – pb 70–85% ur – | V 5–12 CL 19 Mwt 384.2 PSA 124 Å ² $\log P$ 2.45 | BORTEZOMIB Antineoplastic Metabolism: substitution of B(OH) ₂ by OH, hydroxylation of CH(Me) ₂ , benzylic hydroxylation, phenylalaninamide hydrolysis |

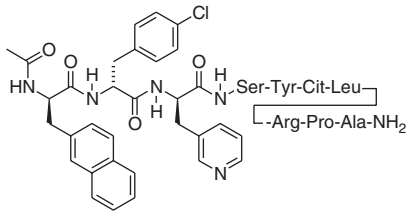
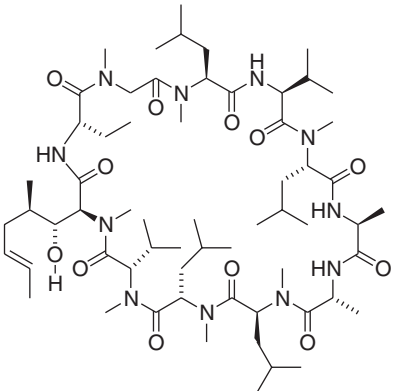
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|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7–2.3 h* F – pb 90% ur 14%* | V 0.6 CL – Mwt 525.4 PSA 137 Å ² $\log P$ 3.54 | FLOVAGATRAN *iv Thrombin inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.8 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 214.1 PSA 86.8 Å ² $\log P$ 0.01 | TALABOSTAT Orally available DPPIV inhibitor, antidiabetic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–18 h F 58% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 411.3 PSA 184 Å ² $\log P$ –5.14 | DARINAPARSIN Antineoplastic, apoptosis inducer |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F – pb – ur – | V 0.35 CL – Mwt 248.3 PSA 142 Å ² $\log P$ –4.14 | NEGAMYCIN Antibacterial |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–8 h F 97% pb 94–98% ur 1% | V 0.24 CL 1.0 Mwt 461.4 PSA 95.9 Å ² $\log P$ 4.37 | LOXIGLUMIDE CCK antagonist, gastroprokinetic, racemic Metabolism: hydroxylation and oxidative degradation of pentyl, O-demethylation, then oxidation of primary alcohol to CO ₂ H, hydrolysis of both amides |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F – pb – ur 44% | V – CL/F 4.3 Mwt 361.4 PSA 98.7 Å ² $\log P$ 2.23 | SEMAGACESTAT Oral γ -secretase inhibitor for treatment of Alzheimer disease Metabolism: hydrolysis of the amide bond proximal to the benzazepine ring, benzylic hydroxylation of the benzazepine ring |

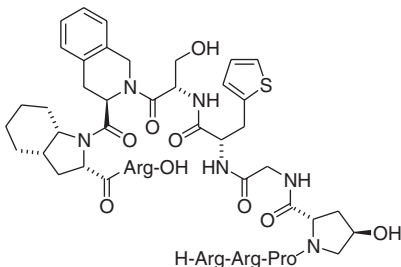
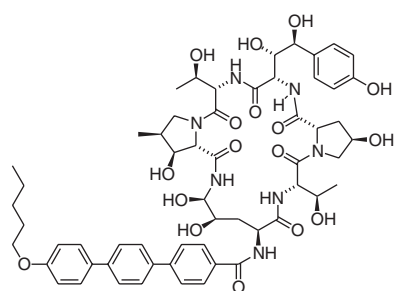
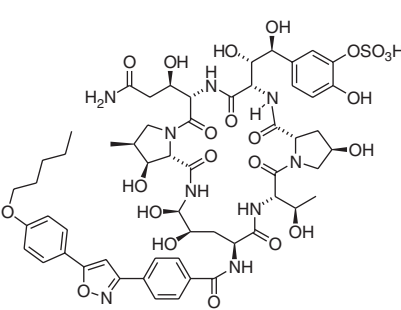
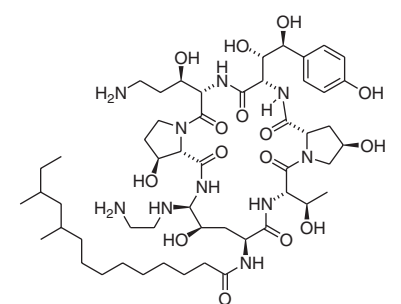
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|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–17 h F – pb 78–82% ur – | V 0.9–1.6 CL 3.7 ± 2.0 Mwt 530.7 PSA 112 \AA^2 log P 3.56 | BB 83698 Peptide deformylase inhibitor, antibacterial |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.0–4.2 h F 22–100%* pb – ur – | V – CL 31* Mwt 396.4 PSA 94.9 \AA^2 log P 0.04 | LBM 415 *rodents Peptide deformylase inhibitor, antibacterial |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.4 h* F 65%* pb – ur 2–5%* | V – CL – Mwt 505.6 PSA 117 \AA^2 log P 4.07 | CAPROMORELIN *rat Growth hormone secretagogue Metabolism (rat): O-debenzylation, aromatic hydroxylation of benzyl ether, N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1 h* F 12%* pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 463.5 PSA 162 \AA^2 log P 0.93 | BMS-317180 *monkey Growth hormone secretagogue |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h* F 30–35%* pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 528.7 PSA 95.7 \AA^2 log P 3.80 | TABIMORELIN *dog Growth hormone secretagogue; CYP3A4 inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9 h F – pb – ur – | V 2.7 CL 4 Mwt 473.7 PSA 98.7 \AA^2 log P 4.80 | TALTOBULIN Tubulin polymerization inhibitor, antineoplastic |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6 h F 0% pb 94% ur – | V 0.2 CL – Mwt 656.9 PSA 192 Å ² log P 3.52 | ENALKIREN Renin inhibitor, antihypertensive |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 9 h F 1–2% pb 83% ur – | V 1 CL 12.8 Mwt 630.8 PSA 170 Å ² log P 3.38 | REMIKIREN Renin inhibitor, antihypertensive Metabolism: hydroxylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 34–41 h F 2.6% pb 47–51% ur <1% | V 2.1 CL 2.3 (iv) Mwt 551.8 PSA 146 Å ² log P 2.74 | ALISKIREN Renin inhibitor, antihypertensive; 91% of dose is excreted unchanged in feces |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5±2 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 0.2 CL 4 Mwt 723.6 PSA 207 Å ² log P –2.61 | BROSTALLICIN DNA ligand, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h (iv) F <2% pb <10% ur 30–35% | V 2.0–2.5 CL 4–5 Mwt 560.7 PSA 206 Å ² log P –0.61 | DESFERRIOXAMIN, DEFEROXAMINE Chelating agent for iron Metabolism: transamination, oxidation to carboxylic acid, N-hydroxylation |
| Pyroglutamic acid-His-Trp-Ser- -Tyr-(O-tBu)ser-Leu- -Arg-Pro-NHEt | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2 h F 2.5–3.3%* pb 15% ur 17% | V – CL – Mwt 1239.4 PSA 438 Å ² log P 0.76 | BUSERELIN *intranasal; po (pig): 1–5% GnRH agonist, treatment of hormone-sensitive cancers |

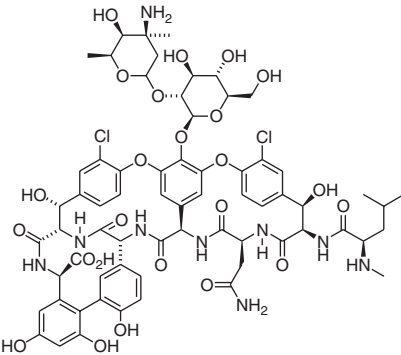
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| Pyroglutamic acid-His-Trp-Ser-(O-tBu)Ser-Tyr-(O-tBu)ser-Leu-Arg-Pro-NH-NHMe | $t_{1/2}$ 4–5 h (sc) F – pb 20–28% ur 20% (sc) | V CL 1.9 Mwt 1269.4 PSA 493 Å ² log P –0.26 | GOSERELIN GnRH agonist, treatment of hormone-sensitive cancers |
| Pyroglutamic acid-His-Trp-Ser-Tyr-Nal-Leu-Arg-Pro-Gly-NH ₂ | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 4–21%* pb 80% ur 3%* | V CL – Mwt 1322.5 PSA 472 Å ² log P 0.53 | NAFARELIN *intranasal dosing GnRH agonist |
| Pyroglutamic acid-His-Trp-Ser-Tyr-leu-Leu-Arg-Pro-NHEt | $t_{1/2}$ 2.9–3.6 h F <1% pb 50% ur – | V CL 2.0–2.2 Mwt 1209.4 PSA 429 Å ² log P 0.55 | LEUPRORELIN GnRH analog, treatment of hormone-sensitive cancers |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–12 h (iv) F – pb 86% ur 2–4% (sc) | V CL 1.3 Mwt 1431.0 PSA 496 Å ² log P 1.38 | CETRORELIX (Cit: citrulline) GnRH antagonist |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.6±2.0 h F 27±9% pb 93±2% ur <1% | V CL 5.3±1.5 Mwt 1202.6 PSA 279 Å ² log P 2.79 | CYCLOSPORINE Natural immunosuppressant |

| | | | |
|---|--|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h <i>F</i> Low <i>pb</i> 44% <i>ur</i> <10% | <i>V</i> 0.3–0.4 <i>CL</i> 4–5 <i>Mwt</i> 1304.5 <i>PSA</i> 544 Å ² <i>log P</i> –3.27 | ICATIBANT Bradykinin B ₂ antagonist for treatment of hereditary angioedema Metabolism: peptide bond hydrolysis (Thi-Ser and Gly-Thi) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 40–50 h <i>F</i> 2–7% <i>pb</i> 84% <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> 0.77 <i>CL</i> 0.64 <i>Mwt</i> 1140.2 <i>PSA</i> 377 Å ² <i>log P</i> 4.34 | ANIDULAFUNGIN Antifungal |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11–17 h <i>F</i> Low <i>pb</i> >99% <i>ur</i> <1% | <i>V</i> 0.21 <i>CL</i> 0.17 <i>Mwt</i> 1270.3 <i>PSA</i> 519 Å ² <i>log P</i> –7.49 | MICAUFUNGIN Antifungal Metabolized by aryl sulfatase and COMT |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 27 h (iv) <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> 96% <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> 0.13 <i>CL</i> 0.14 <i>Mwt</i> 1093.3 <i>PSA</i> 412 Å ² <i>log P</i> 3.53 | CASPOFUNGIN Antifungal |

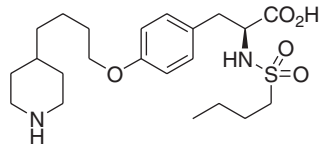
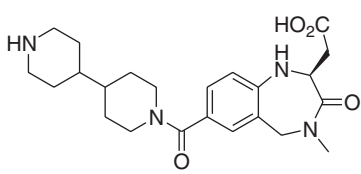
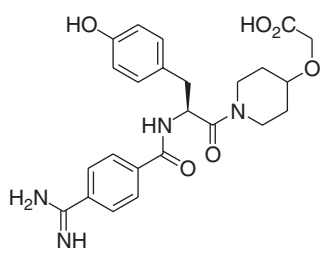
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.7–4.6 h F 0.1%* pb – ur 47% | V 0.2–0.4 CL 0.3–0.7 Mwt 1069.2 PSA 486 Å ² log P –2.95 | DESMOPRESSIN *intranasal : 2–3% Vasopressin agonist, antidiuretic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3 h F – pb 80% ur <5% (sc) | V 0.46 CL 4.1 Mwt 1096.3 PSA 406 Å ² log P 4.99 | LANREOTIDE Somatostatin analog for treatment of acromegaly and carcinoid syndrome |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5±0.4 h F 1–3% pb 65% ur 11–20% | V 0.35±0.22 CL 2.7±1.4 Mwt 1019.2 PSA 383 Å ² log P 3.40 | OCTREOTIDE Somatostatin analog for sc dosing Treatment of carcinoid syndrome |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3 h (iv) F – pb 92–94% ur – | V 1.2 CL 7.4 Mwt 540.7 PSA 193 Å ² log P 3.60 | ROMIDEPSIN Histone deacetylase inhibitor, antineoplastic |

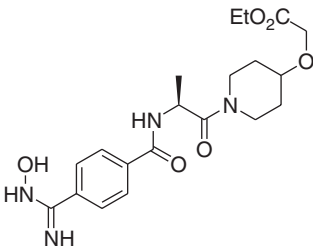
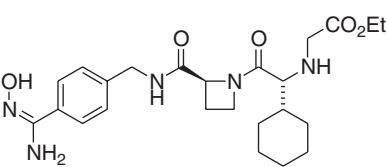
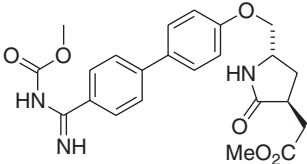
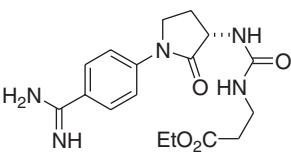
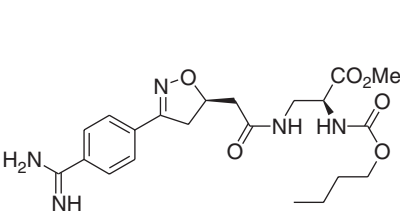
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 5.6±1.8 h | V | 0.39±0.06 | VANCOMYCIN |
| | F | Low | CL | 1.4±0.1 | Antibacterial |
| | pb | 30±10% | Mwt | 1449.3 | |
| | ur | 79±11% | PSA | 530 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | -1.41 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; ACE, angiotensin converting enzyme; CGRP, calcitonin gene related peptide; CCK, cholecystokinin; COMT, catechol-O-methyltransferase; DPPIV, dipeptidylpeptidase IV; GI, gastrointestinal; GnRH, gonadotropin releasing hormone.

Table 55.2 Antithrombotic amino-, amidino-, and guanidino carboxylic acids. V in l kg⁻¹, CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹, Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|-------|--------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.5–3.0 h | V | 0.3–0.7 | TIROFIBAN |
| | F | Low | CL | 3.3–4.8 | Fibrinogen antagonist, |
| | pb | 64% | Mwt | 440.6 | antithrombotic for iv |
| | ur | 38–80% | PSA | 113 Å ² | administration |
| | | | log P | 4.14 | Metabolism: oxidation to 2-piperidinone, O-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 12–20 h | V | – | LOTRAFIBAN |
| | F | 2% | CL/F | 97 | Platelet glycoprotein |
| | pb | <13% | Mwt | 428.5 | IIb/IIIa blocker, |
| | ur | High | PSA | 102 Å ² | antithrombotic |
| | | | log P | -0.30 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2–4 h | V | 0.3 | LAMIFIBAN |
| | F | 1%* | CL | 1.9 | *mouse |
| | pb | 6% | Mwt | 468.5 | Antithrombotic for iv |
| | ur | 90% (iv) | PSA | 166 Å ² | administration |
| | | | log P | 0.08 | |

(continued overleaf)

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|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–12 h* F 36%* pb – ur 57%* | V – CL 5.2* Mwt 420.5 PSA 144 Å ² $\log P$ 1.04 | SIBRAFIBAN *acid/amidine on oral dosing of ester/hydroxyamidine; oral antithrombotic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h* F 20%* pb <15%* ur 83%** | V 0.22** CL 145±15** Mwt 473.6 PSA 144 Å ² $\log P$ 2.08 | XIMELAGATRAN *amidine/acid (melagatran) on oral dosing of ximelagatran **melagatran on iv dosing Withdrawn in 2006 because of hepatotoxicity |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11–13 h* F 24%* pb Low ur 17%* | V – CL 6.3* Mwt 439.5 PSA 127 Å ² $\log P$ 0.40 | LEFRADAFIBAN *amidine/acid (fradafiban) on oral dosing of lefradafiban |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–18 h* F 9%* pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 361.4 PSA 138 Å ² $\log P$ –0.43 | ORBOFIBAN *acid on oral dosing of ester Antithrombotic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 d* F 21%* pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 447.5 PSA 165 Å ² $\log P$ 1.60 | ROXIFIBAN *acid on oral dosing of ester Platelet GPIIb/IIIa antagonist, antithrombotic Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, 2- and 3-hydroxylation of butyl, 4- and 5-hydroxylation of isoxazoline |

| | | | |
|--|---|--|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4–6 h* F 13%* pb – ur 29%* | V – CL 0.08 (iv) Mwt 358.4 PSA 134 Å ² log P 0.46 | XEMIOFIBAN *acid on oral dosing of ester Antithrombotic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 12–14 h* F 6.5%* pb 35%* ur 77%* | V 0.9–1.1* CL – Mwt 471.5* PSA 145 Å ² * log P –0.19* | DABIGATRAN ETEXILATE *acid/amidine (dabigatran) on oral dosing of prodrug |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h* F Low pb – ur 13–32%* | V 0.65 CL – Mwt 446.5 PSA 127 Å ² log P 0.58 | OTAMIXABAN *iv Factor Xa inhibitor |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.4–0.8 h* F Low pb 54% ur 16%* | V 0.2 CL 5 Mwt 508.6 PSA 186 Å ² log P 2.06 | ARGATROBAN *iv Thrombin inhibitor, antithrombotic; CYP3A4 substrate Metabolism: oxidation to quinoline and hydroxylation; reason for low F : too basic, poor absorption due to charges |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.9 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 0.36 CL 6.4 Mwt 558.7 PSA 194 Å ² log P 0.27 | NAPSAGATRAN Thrombin inhibitor |

(continued overleaf)

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| | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h <i>F</i> 2%* pb 20–28% ur – | <i>V</i> 0.26 CL 6.1 Mwt 438.6 PSA 161 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.98 | INOATRAN *monkey Little metabolism in humans |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5 h <i>F</i> <6% pb – ur – | <i>V</i> – CL 6 Mwt 416.5 PSA 140 Å ² log <i>P</i> –0.44 | EFEGATRAN Thrombin inhibitor |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; *F*, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; *V*, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

56

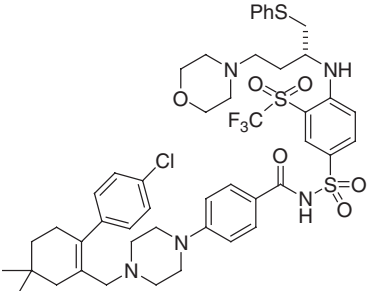
Oligoarylamines, Oligoarylamides, Oligoarylcarbamates, and Oligoarylureas

In recent years, several enzyme inhibitors have been developed with the aid of a thorough understanding of the synthetic accessibility of molecules and molecular modeling. Typical target enzymes included HIV protease and the various tyrosine kinases involved in the growth of tumors [1]. Arenes and heteroarenes are easy to synthesize, nonchiral, and easy to functionalize with various substituents. Therefore, these drugs often end up being short oligoarenes or -heteroarenes linked by one- to three-atom spacers (diarylureas, diarylethers, diarylamines, diarylethylenes, benzanilides, etc.) (Table 56.1). Because such compounds do not readily dissolve in water [2], solubility-enhancing, basic substituents are often included, such as 1-piperazinyl or other aminoalkyl substituents. Amines may also prolong the plasma half-life of these oligoarenes by increasing their volume of distribution (Chapter 23).

References

1. Liao, J.J.-L. (2007) Molecular recognition of protein kinase binding pockets for design of potent and selective kinase inhibitors. *J. Med. Chem.*, **50**, 409–424.
2. Lovering, F., Bikker, J., and Humblet, C. (2009) Escape from flatland: increasing saturation as an approach to improving clinical success. *J. Med. Chem.*, **52**, 6752–6756.

Table 56.1 Oligoarylamines and related compounds. V in l kg⁻¹, CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹, and Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|---------|-------|--------------------|----------------------------|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 14–20 h | V | – | NAVITOCCLAX, ABT-263 |
| | F | 20%* | CL/F | 0.8–1.9 | *monkey |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 974.6 | Bcl-2 inhibitor, apoptosis |
| | ur | – | PSA | 170 Å ² | inducer, oncolytic |
| | | | log P | 9.70 | |

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| | $t_{1/2}$ 11–16 h* F – pb 98% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 580.5 PSA 197 Å ² $\log P$ 1.48 | FOSTAMATINIB Orally available prodrug of R406; spleen tyrosine kinase inhibitor; *R406 on oral dosing of prodrug; further metabolism: N-glucuronidation, 4-O-demethylation, then O-sulfation, O-glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 16–20 h F – pb – ur 66% | V 73 CL 1 Mwt 404.3 PSA 102 Å ² $\log P$ 0.76 | VX-702 MAP kinase inhibitor, treatment of rheumatoid arthritis and acute coronary syndrome |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 h F >46% pb – ur 30% | V – CL – Mwt 376.4 PSA 93.2 Å ² $\log P$ 1.88 | PICOTAMIDE Antithrombotic, platelet aggregation inhibitor |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 52±22 h F 85% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 376.4 PSA 106 Å ² $\log P$ 1.46 | ENTINOSTAT, MS-275 Histone deacetylase inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5–8 h F 43% (dog) pb – ur – | V – CL 10–19 Mwt 373.5 PSA 78.9 Å ² $\log P$ 3.56 | MOTESANIB, AMG 706 Antiangiogenic, antineoplastic Metabolism: N-carbamoyl-glucuronidation, N-glucuronidation, indoline CH ₂ hydroxylation, then oxidation to lactam, N-oxidation of 4-pyridyl, N-depicolinylolation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 10–14 d F 13–53%* pb >94% ur – | V 0.77** CL – Mwt 421.3 PSA 84.5 Å ² $\log P$ 2.98 | VISMODEGIB *animals **calculated SMO antagonist, hedgehog signaling inhibitor, oncolytic |

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| | $t_{1/2}$ 34±14 h* <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> 4 <i>CL</i> 4.4±3.0 <i>Mwt</i> 646.7 <i>PSA</i> 111 Å ² <i>log P</i> 6.38 | TARIQUIDAR *iv <i>P</i> -glycoprotein inhibitor, adjunct antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 19 h <i>F</i> 47% <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 451.9 <i>PSA</i> 107 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.93 | BETRIXABAN, PRT 054021 Factor Xa inhibitor, antithrombotic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 14–18 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 474.6 <i>PSA</i> 94.1 Å ² <i>log P</i> 4.08 | DAREXABAN, YM-150 Factor Xa inhibitor, antithrombotic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 8–11 h <i>F</i> 45% <i>pb</i> 40–59% <i>ur</i> 36–45% | <i>V</i> 4.5 <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 548.1 <i>PSA</i> 165 Å ² <i>log P</i> 1.24 | EDOXABAN Factor Xa inhibitor, antithrombotic Metabolism: hydrolysis of oxal pyridylamide, N-demethylation of piperidine, hydrolysis of dimethylamide |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7–11 h <i>F</i> 42% (rat) <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> 17 <i>CL</i> 24 <i>Mwt</i> 396.4 <i>PSA</i> 106 Å ² <i>log P</i> 1.88 | MGCD-0 103 Histone deacetylase inhibitor, apoptosis inducer, oncolytic |

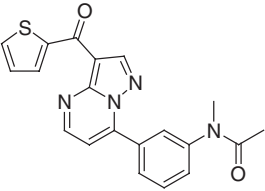
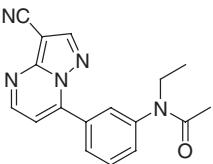
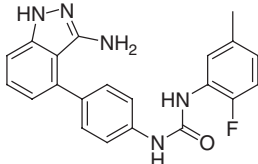
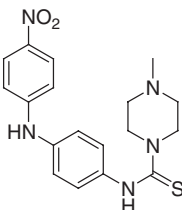
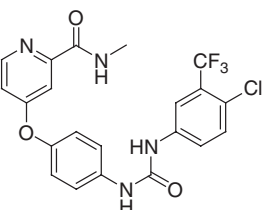
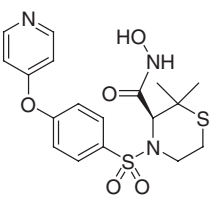
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 18–22 h <i>F</i> 98% <i>pb</i> 95% <i>ur</i> 5% | <i>V</i> 5–6 <i>CL</i> 2.3–3.2 <i>Mwt</i> 493.6 <i>PSA</i> 86.3 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.48 | IMATINIB Antineoplastic, substrate and inhibitor of CYP3A4 Metabolism: N-demethylation (<i>N</i> -desmethyl: $t_{1/2}$ 40 h), N-oxidation of pyridine, hydroxylation of CH ₃ C, oxidation of piperazine to lactam, conversion of CCH ₂ N to CCO ₂ H |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 13 h <i>F</i> 60%* <i>pb</i> 93% <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> 17** <i>CL</i> 14** <i>Mwt</i> 498.6 <i>PSA</i> 102 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.89 | MASITINIB *cat **dog Antineoplastic Metabolism: N-dealkylation, hydroxylation, amide hydrolysis |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 18–26 h* <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> 10–16 <i>CL</i> 5.5–7.7 <i>Mwt</i> 474.6 <i>PSA</i> 93.8 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.34 | DANUSERITIB *iv Antineoplastic Metabolite: <i>N</i> -oxide of piperazine |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h <i>F</i> 32% <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 576.6 <i>PSA</i> 99.2 Å ² <i>log P</i> 3.03 | BAFETINIB Kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 17 h <i>F</i> 30% <i>pb</i> 98% <i>ur</i> <4% | <i>V</i> 2.7 <i>CL</i> 7.5 <i>Mwt</i> 529.5 <i>PSA</i> 97.6 Å ² <i>log P</i> 5.15 | NILOTINIB Kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolism: hydroxylation of methyl in imidazole, then oxidation to carboxylic acid |

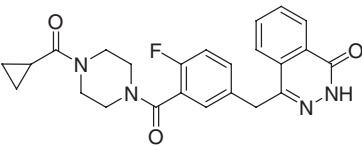
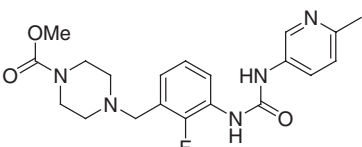
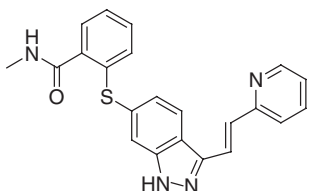
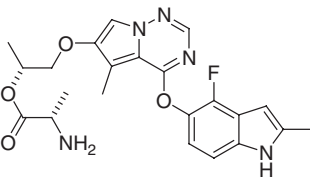
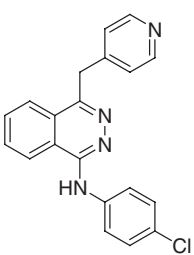
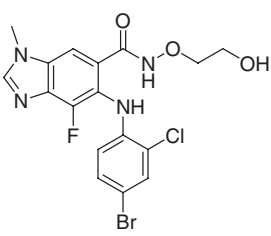
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 9 h F 32% pb 83% ur 9% | V 6–7 CL 8.3 Mwt 444.4 PSA 150 Å ² $\log P$ -0.68 | RALTEGRAVIR Antiviral (HIV), does not cross bbb Metabolism: glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6–7 h F >80% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 447.5 PSA 118.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.34 | TBC-3711 Endothelin ETA antagonist for treatment of pulmonary hypertension |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5–6 h F 34%* pb 96% ur 0.1% | V 39 CL 34** Mwt 488.0 PSA 135 Å ² $\log P$ 0.14 | DASATINIB *dog **monkey Kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolism: hydroxylation by CYP3A4, N-oxidation, N-dealkylation, oxidation to carboxylic acid |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 31 h F 14–39% pb >99% ur <4% | V 0.3 CL 1.4 Mwt 437.5 PSA 127 Å ² $\log P$ 1.98 | PAZOPANIB Tyrosine kinase inhibitor, antiangiogenic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 42 h F 32–66% pb 91% ur 2.3% | V 26 CL/F 15–26 Mwt 450.3 PSA 78.0 Å ² $\log P$ 3.55 | CRIZOTINIB Kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolism: piperidine oxidation to lactam, O-dealkylation |

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| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.2–2.4 h F 40% (rat) pb – ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 362.4 PSA 41.1 Å ² log P 5.29 | REVAPRAZAN, YH1885 Proton pump inhibitor, antiulcerative |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5.3 h* F 84%* pb – ur – | V 3.4* CL 18* Mwt 528.5 PSA 120 Å ² log P 1.87 | RAZAXABAN *dog Factor Xa inhibitor, anticoagulant Metabolism (rat, dog): reductive N–O bond cleavage, then glucuronidation of phenol, N-dealkylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 30–120 h F – pb >99% ur <1% | V 1.6 CL 0.3 Mwt 489.9 PSA 96.0 Å ² log P 3.94 | VEMURAFENIB B-raf enzyme inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5–12 h F – pb – ur – | V/F 0.4 CL/F 0.4 Mwt 422.4 PSA 138 Å ² log P –0.31 | RIOCIGUAT Guanylate cyclase stimulator for treatment of pulmonary hypertension |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h (rat) F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 301.3 PSA 73.0 Å ² log P 2.16 | OCINAPLON Anxiolytic Metabolite: 4-pyridyl- <i>N</i> -oxide |

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–2.0 h F – pb – ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 376.4 PSA 95.8 Å ² $\log P$ 0.83 | INDIPLON Hypnotic Metabolism: N-deacetylation, N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1 h F 31±10% pb 60% ur <1% | V 1.3 CL 16 Mwt 305.3 PSA 74.3 Å ² $\log P$ 1.40 | ZALEPLON Hypnotic Metabolites: 5-oxo (4-pyrimidone), N-desethyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17±5 h F 10%* pb 99% ur 4% | V 1.2* CL 0.7±0.3 Mwt 375.4 PSA 95.8 Å ² $\log P$ 4.34 | LINIFANIB, ABT-869 *monkey VEGF inhibitor, antiangiogenic, antineoplastic Metabolism: oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 h F <40% pb – ur 1.5% | V – CL – Mwt 371.5 PSA 108 Å ² $\log P$ 2.32 | AMOCARZINE Anthelmintic Metabolism: N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25–48 h F 40–50% pb 99.5% ur 0% | V 0.7 CL 0.7 (rat) Mwt 464.8 PSA 92.4 Å ² $\log P$ 5.16 | SORAFENIB Tyrosine kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic Active metabolite: pyridine-N-oxide; further metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–5 h F High pb 69–90% ur <2% | V – CL – Mwt 423.5 PSA 143 Å ² $\log P$ 4.29 | PRINOMASTAT Matrix metalloproteinase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolite: pyridine-N-oxide ($t_{1/2}$ 6–10 h) |

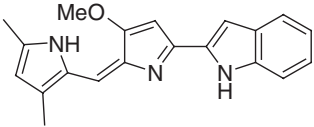
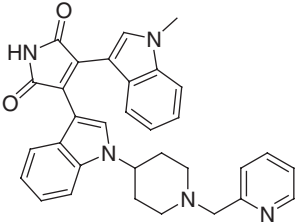
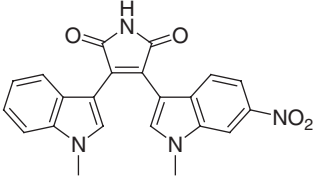
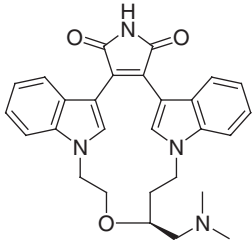
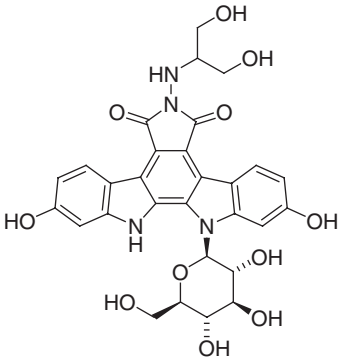
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–10 h F 100%* pb – ur – | V 16–87 CL 0.3–2.4 Mwt 434.5 PSA 82.1 Å ² log P 0.00 | OLAPARIB *rat, dog PARP inhibitor, antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18–27 h F 100% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 401.4 PSA 86.8 Å ² log P 1.36 | OMECAMTIV MECARBIL Cardiac myosin activator for treatment of heart failure |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 h F 58% pb 99.6% ur <1% | V 1.9 CL/ F 6 Mwt 386.5 PSA 96.0 Å ² log P 4.15 | AXITINIB Antineoplastic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14 h* F 55–97%* pb – ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 370.4 PSA 84.7 Å ² log P 2.48 | BRIVANIB ALANINATE *brivanib on oral dosing of prodrug Prodrug of brivanib with improved solubility Kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolism: O-dealkylation, sulfation, |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.6±1.1 h F 18–57% pb – ur 0.4% | V 3.3 CL – Mwt 346.8 PSA 50.7 Å ² log P 3.80 | VATALANIB Antiangiogenic tyrosine kinase inhibitor Metabolism: pyridine N-oxidation, aromatic hydroxylation, hydroxylation of CH ₂ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–14 h F – pb 97% ur – | V/F 0.9–4.6 CL/ F 8–31 Mwt 457.7 PSA 88.4 Å ² log P 5.55 | SELUMETINIB, AZD 6244 MEK inhibitor Metabolism: N-demethylation |

| | | | |
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 12–35 h F >40% (rat) pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 450.5 PSA 72.5 Å ² log P 4.80 | CEDIRANIB VEGF tyrosine kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic, crosses bbb Metabolism: N-glucuronidation (at pyrrolidine) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 34–65 h F 59% pb 91% ur <0.5% | V 23 CL 7–12 Mwt 446.9 PSA 68.7 Å ² log P 4.11 | GEFITINIB Kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolism (CYP3A4): demethylation, oxidative defluorination, N-dealkylation of tertiary amine |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 34 h F – pb – ur – | V/F 19–73 CL/F 11 Mwt 485.9 PSA 88.6 Å ² log P 3.59 | AFATINIB, BIBW 2992 Kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 10–17 h F – pb – ur – | V 63–95 CL/F 47–105 Mwt 557.0 PSA 112 Å ² log P 5.46 | NERATINIB Tyrosine kinase inhibitor, oncolytic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 120 h F Good pb 92–96% ur <5% | V 115 CL 3.4 Mwt 475.4 PSA 59.5 Å ² log P 5.51 | VANDETANIB Kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolism: N-oxidation, N-demethylation, glucuronidation |

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| | $t_{1/2}$ 17–39 h F 18% pb – ur 1% | V 18.6 CL/F 38–64 Mwt 530.5 PSA 82.9 Å ² log P 5.48 | BOSUTINIB Tyrosine kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 40 h F – pb – ur – | V/F >30 CL/F 22 Mwt 542.0 PSA 90.4 Å ² log P 2.74 | SARACATINIB Antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F 33% pb – ur – | V 3–10 CL 68 Mwt 485.9 PSA 88.6 Å ² log P 3.65 | CANERTINIB Irreversible tyrosine kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 36 h F 60–100% pb 95% ur <2% | V 3.6 CL 1.1 Mwt 393.4 PSA 74.7 Å ² log P 2.39 | ERLOTINIB Kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolism: O-demethylation, aromatic hydroxylation, oxidation of ethynylbenzene to arylacetic acid |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 24 h F 50–100% pb 99% ur <2% | V 34 CL – Mwt 581.1 PSA 115 Å ² log P 5.14 | LAPATINIB Kinase inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 29–54 h F – pb 81–96% ur – | V – CL 0.5–6.3 Mwt 517.1 PSA 79.0 Å ² log P 5.20 | ISPINESIB Kinesin spindle protein inhibitor, antineoplastic |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 39–60 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 23–52 CL 32–72 Mwt 317.4 PSA 53.2 Å ² $\log P$ 3.52 | OBATOCLAX Bcl-2 inhibitor, antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 40–54 h* F – pb 95% ur – | V – CL 11.2 Mwt 515.6 PSA 62.3 Å ² $\log P$ 4.43 | ENZASTAURIN *parent + metabolites Kinase inhibitor Metabolism: N-depicoylation, N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9 h F 12%* pb – ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 400.4 PSA 92.0 Å ² $\log P$ 3.73 | MKC-1, RO 31-7453 *monkey Antimitotic, antineoplastic Metabolism: N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h F – pb – ur <1% | V/F 15* CL/F 33 Mwt 468.6 PSA 58.6 Å ² $\log P$ 3.92 | RUBOXISTAURIN Protein kinase C inhibitor for treatment of diabetic retinopathy Metabolites: N-desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 24 h), 6-hydroxyindole |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20–25 h F – pb – ur 1–4% | V 17–23 CL 20–24 Mwt 608.6 PSA 241 Å ² $\log P$ 0.75 | EDOTECARIN Antineoplastic |

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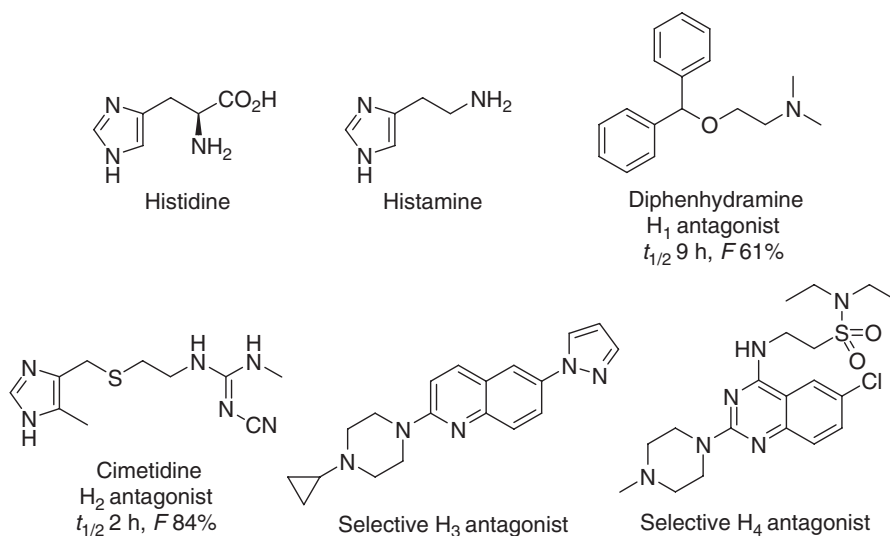
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h F 34–55% pb 99% ur 1% (iv) | V 0.8 CL 3–7 Mwt 498.6 PSA 78.1 Å ² log P 4.40 | CONIVAPTAN Vasopressin antagonist, due to CYP-inhibition the development of an oral formulation was discontinued and an iv formulation was chosen |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7–10 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 473.9 PSA 49.4 Å ² log P 7.23 | LIXIVAPTAN Vasopressin V ₂ antagonist Metabolism: oxidation of pyrrole to lactam |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 8–12 h F 56% pb 98% ur <1% | V 3 CL – Mwt 448.9 PSA 69.6 Å ² log P 4.33 | TOLVAPTAN Vasopressin antagonist for treatment of hyponatremia Metabolism: hydroxylation |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; CYP, cytochrome P; MAP, mitogen-activated protein; MEK, mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase; PARP, poly(ADP-ribose)polymerase; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor.

57

Imidazoles

Imidazole is a weak organic base (pK_a 7.0) and an important structural element of various drugs. Histamine, biosynthesized by decarboxylation of the amino acid histidine, is the natural agonist of four receptors, and selective agonists and antagonists have been developed for each of them (Scheme 57.1). Histamine H_1 antagonists (the classic antihistaminics, Chapter 46), used as antipruritics, do not usually contain an imidazole substructure, but an aliphatic amine instead. Many H_2 antagonists, however, contain an imidazole as the basic pharmacophore. These drugs suppress the production of gastric acid and can be used for the treatment of esophageal reflux or gastric ulcers. H_3 antagonists (imidazole derivatives or amines) are being considered as appetite suppressants and for the treatment of attention deficit disorders. Potential indications for H_4 antagonists (amines) include asthma and allergic rhinitis, that is, the same as for H_1 antagonists [1].



Scheme 57.1 Histamine receptor agonists and antagonists [1,2].

Further imidazole-containing drugs are the α_2 -adrenergic agonists (e.g., dexmedetomidine) and the muscarinic acetylcholine agonist pilocarpine. One group of serotonin 5-HT₃ antagonists, the “setrons,” also contain imidazole as the pharmacophore. These drugs are mainly used as antiemetics for patients undergoing chemotherapy (Table 57.1).

The trichomonocidal properties of 2-nitroimidazole (azomycin) were discovered in 1955 and led to the development of numerous nitroimidazoles as antiprotozoals. Metronidazole, for instance, is active against a wide variety of anaerobic bacteria and anaerobic protozoal parasites. Nitroimidazoles are less toxic to aerobic than to anaerobic organisms. *In vivo*, these compounds are reduced by ferredoxin to hydroxylamines and aminoimidazoles, which can damage DNA and interfere with the multienzyme complex pyruvate dehydrogenase, which is critical for the production of acetyl-CoA under anaerobic conditions [3].

Lipophilic imidazoles and 1,2,4-triazoles can inhibit the fungal sterol 14- α -demethylase and, thereby, impair the biosynthesis of ergosterol. These compounds are used to suppress the growth of fungi for the treatment of fungal infections.



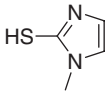
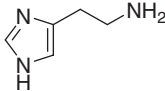
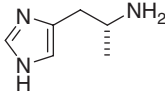
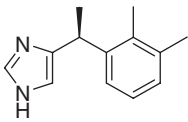
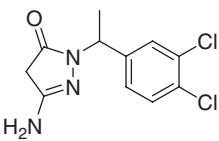
Benzimidazoles such as thiabendazole, discovered in 1961, are highly active against gastrointestinal nematodes and are used as anthelmintics for humans and in veterinary medicine. Benzimidazoles bind strongly and selectively to parasite β -tubulin and, thereby, inhibit microtubule polymerization in nematodes. Their low oral bioavailability is an advantage because the target organ of these drugs is the gastrointestinal tract.

Imidazoles form strong hydrogen bonds, have a large polar surface area, and do not readily cross the blood–brain barrier (bbb). Typical metabolic transformations include N-methylation and N-glucuronidation. Sterically unencumbered, lipophilic imidazoles (and pyridines) may coordinate strongly to metals (e.g., iron in cytochrome P (CYP) enzymes) and act as CYP inhibitors. Cimetidine, for instance, inhibits both CYP2D6 and CYP2E1.

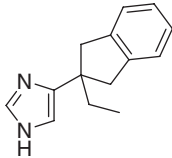
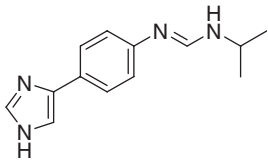
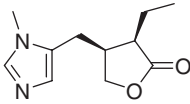
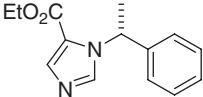
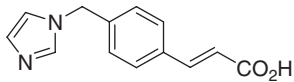
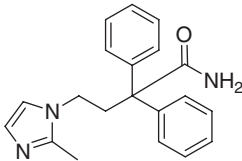
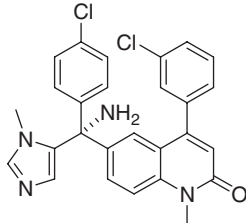
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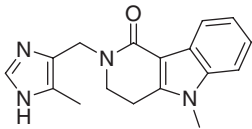
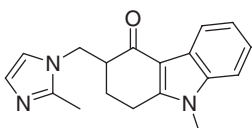
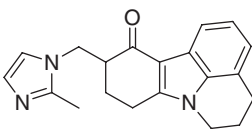
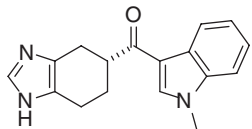
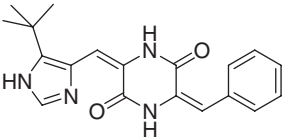
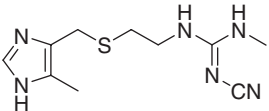
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Table 57.1 Imidazoles and related compounds (see also Table 58.1 (triazoles)). V in l kg^{-1} , CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$, Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

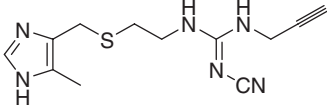
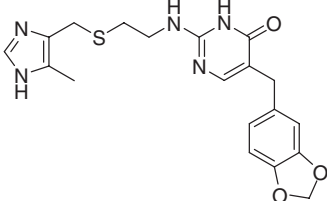
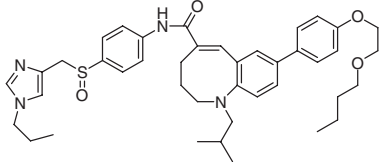
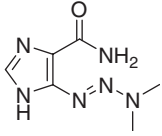
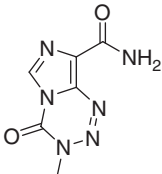
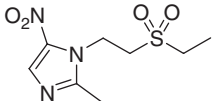
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15–40 h F 100% pb Low ur 1–4% | V 0.6–1.0 CL – Mwt 82.1 PSA 28.7 Å ² $\log P$ 1.10 | FOMEPIZOLE Alcohol dehydrogenase inhibitor, antidote to methanol, and ethylene glycol poisoning Metabolites: 4-(hydroxymethyl)pyrazole, 4-carboxypyrazole, N -glucuronides |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 100% pb 5–15% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 68.1 PSA 28.7 Å ² $\log P$ –0.10 | IMIDAZOLE |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–6 h F 95% pb – ur 7% | V 0.6–0.9 CL 1.4–3.7 Mwt 114.2 PSA 47.4 Å ² $\log P$ –0.34 | METHIMAZOLE, THIAMAZOLE Antihyperthyroid Metabolite: 3-methyl-2-thiohydantoin ($t_{1/2}$ 9 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 min F – pb – ur 2–3% | V – CL – Mwt 111.2 PSA 54.7 Å ² $\log P$ –0.70 | HISTAMINE Natural neurotransmitter Metabolism: N -methylation of imidazole, oxidation to imidazolylacetic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 min F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 125.2 PSA 54.7 Å ² $\log P$ –0.35 | (<i>R</i>)- α -METHYLHISTAMINE Synthetic histamine H ₃ agonist |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 h F 12–20% pb 94% ur 0% | V 1.3–1.6 CL 8–11 Mwt 200.3 PSA 28.7 Å ² $\log P$ 2.79 | DEXMEDETOMIDINE α_2 -receptor agonist, sedative, analgesic, CYP2D6 inhibitor Metabolism: N -glucuronidation, hydroxylation, oxidation of aromatic CH_3 to CO_2H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–17 h F – pb 65% ur 5% | V 1 CL – Mwt 272.1 PSA 58.7 Å ² $\log P$ 2.10 | MUZOLIMINE Diuretic Metabolism: hydrolysis of amide, then decarboxylation |

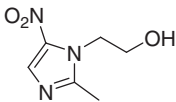
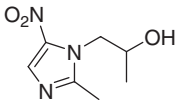
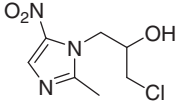
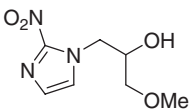
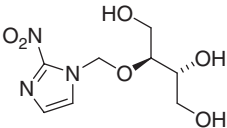
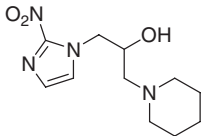
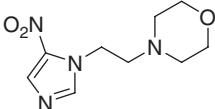
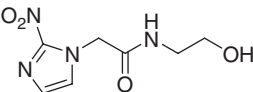
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7–2.0 h F 2% pb – ur – | V 3.0–3.5 CL 18–25 Mwt 212.3 PSA 28.7 Å ² log P 2.40 | ATIPAMEZOLE α_2 Adrenoceptor antagonist, antidote to α_2 adrenoceptor-induced sedation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–19 h F – pb – ur 13% | V – CL 10–12 Mwt 228.3 PSA 53.1 Å ² log P 1.98 | MIFENTIDINE Histamine H ₂ antagonist, antiulcerative Metabolism: hydrolysis to formamide and aniline, oxidation to urea |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8–1.4 h F 100% pb 0% ur 16% | V 2.9 CL – Mwt 208.3 PSA 44.1 Å ² log P –0.24 | PILOCARPINE Antiglaucoma agent, miotic, diaphoretic (stimulates sweating and salivation) Metabolism: lactone hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–6 h F Low pb 77% ur 2% | V 2–5 CL 12–25 Mwt 244.3 PSA 44.1 Å ² log P 3.05 | ETOMIDATE Hypnotic Metabolism: hydrolysis of ester, N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F – pb – ur 42±16% | V 0.7±0.4 CL 10±6 Mwt 228.3 PSA 55.1 Å ² log P 0.53 | OZAGREL Inhibitor of thromboxane synthase, antithrombotic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.0±0.3 h F 58% pb 88% ur 8% | V 1.9±0.4 CL 7.6±1.6 Mwt 319.4 PSA 56.0 Å ² log P 2.42 | IMIDAFENACIN Muscarinic antagonist Metabolism: N-glucuronidation, dihydroxylation and oxidative degradation of imidazole |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F Yes pb 99% ur – | V/F 7–11 CL – Mwt 489.4 PSA 64.2 Å ² log P 4.01 | TIPIFARNIB, R115777 Farnesyltransferase inhibitor, antineoplastic |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|------------|-------|---------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.5–1.7 h | V | 1.1 | ALOSETRON |
| | F | 47–60% | CL | 8.7 | Treatment of irritable bowel syndrome |
| | pb | 82% | Mwt | 294.4 | Metabolism: aromatic |
| | ur | 6% | PSA | 53.9 Å ² | 6-hydroxylation (ortho to indole N) and 7-hydroxylation, then O-sulfation and O-glucuronidation, N-demethylation, hydroxylation of CMe, hydroxylation of imidazole; withdrawn in 2000 for causing ischemic colitis and constipation |
| | | | log P | 0.88 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3.5±1.2 h | V | 1.9±0.5 | ONDANSETRON |
| | F | 62±15% | CL | 5.9±2.6 | Antiemetic, 5-HT ₃ antagonist |
| | pb | 73±2% | Mwt | 293.4 | Metabolism: aromatic 7- and 8-hydroxylation |
| | ur | 5% | PSA | 39.8 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 1.56 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.6–1.9 h | V | — | CILANSETRON |
| | F | 87% (rat) | CL | — | 5-HT ₃ antagonist for treatment of irritable bowel syndrome |
| | pb | — | Mwt | 319.4 | Metabolism: benzylic |
| | ur | — | PSA | 39.8 Å ² | hydroxylation |
| | | | log P | 2.65 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 5.8±1.2 h | V | 2 | RAMOSETRON |
| | F | — | CL | 4.5–5.0 | *iv |
| | pb | 89–91% | Mwt | 279.3 | 5-HT ₃ antagonist, antiemetic |
| | ur | 16–22%* | PSA | 50.7 Å ² | Metabolism: N-demethylation, hydroxylation |
| | | | log P | 1.99 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 6.4 h (iv) | V | 3.2 | PLINABULIN |
| | F | — | CL | 8 | Tubulin polymerization inhibitor, vascular disrupting agent, oncolytic |
| | pb | — | Mwt | 336.4 | |
| | ur | — | PSA | 86.9 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.66 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.0±0.3 h | V | 1.0±0.2 | CIMETIDINE |
| | F | 84±13% | CL | 8.3±2.0 | Histamine H ₂ antagonist, antiulcerative |
| | pb | 19% | Mwt | 252.3 | Metabolism: S-oxidation to sulfoxide, hydroxylation of CCH ₃ , hydrolysis to guanyurea |
| | ur | 62±20% | PSA | 114 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | −0.07 | |

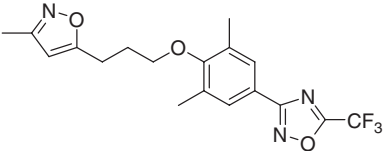
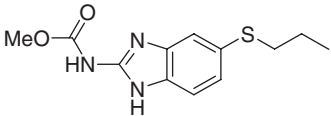
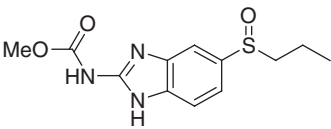
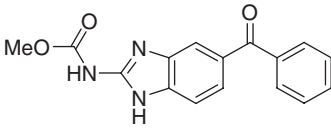
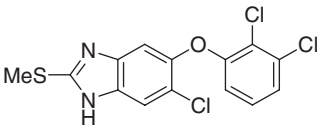
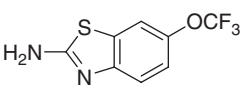
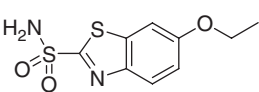
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2–1.6 h F – pb – ur 35–40% | V 2 CL 15 Mwt 276.4 PSA 114 Å ² log P 0.28 | ETINTIDINE Histamine H ₂ antagonist, antiulcerative Metabolism: N-glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 53–91% pb – ur 3–5% | V 0.7 CL 3.2 Mwt 399.5 PSA 126 Å ² log P 2.21 | OXMETIDINE Histamine H ₂ antagonist, antiulcerative Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 35–40 h F Good pb – ur – | V/F 30 CL 15 Mwt 697.0 PSA 85.7 Å ² log P 7.57 | TBR-652 Chemokine 5 (CCR 5) antagonist, antiviral (HIV) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h (iv) F – pb 5% ur 9–30% | V 1.5 CL 2.6 Mwt 182.2 PSA 99.7 Å ² log P 0.03 | DACARBAZINE Methylating reagent, antineoplastic Metabolism: N-demethylation, reductive cleavage of N=N double bond |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.8 h F 96% pb 15% ur 6±3% | V/F 0.6 CL 4.5±1.3 Mwt 194.2 PSA 106 Å ² log P –1.27 | TEMOZOLOMIDE Antineoplastic, crosses bbb Metabolism: hydrolysis of amide and urea, then formation of diazomethane and 4-aminoimidazole-5-carboxylate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–14 h F 95% pb 12–20% ur 20–25% | V 0.6 CL 0.6 Mwt 247.3 PSA 106 Å ² log P –0.29 | TINIDAZOLE Antiprotozoal Metabolism: hydroxylation to 2-(hydroxymethyl), N-oxidation of imidazole, hydroxylation and nitro group migration (to 2-methyl-4-nitro-5-hydroxy) |

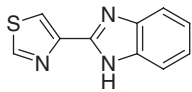
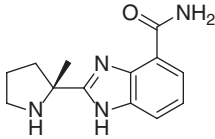
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8.5±2.9 h F 99±8% pb 11±3% ur 10±2% | V 0.74±0.10 CL 1.3±0.3 Mwt 171.2 PSA 83.9 Å ² log P -0.14 | METRONIDAZOLE Antiprotozoal, antibacterial, crosses bbb Metabolism: hydroxylation of CH ₃ , oxidation of CH ₂ OH to CO ₂ H, imidazole N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–20 h F 99±11% pb 15% ur 22% | V 0.8 CL 0.4 Mwt 185.2 PSA 83.9 Å ² log P 0.22 | SECNIDAZOLE Antiprotozoal Metabolism: hydroxylation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11–14 h F >97% pb 11–13% ur 4% | V 0.7–1.0 CL 0.8 Mwt 219.6 PSA 83.9 Å ² log P 0.60 | ORNIDAZOLE Antiprotozoal Metabolism: hydroxylation, hydrolysis of CH ₂ Cl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±1 h F 91% pb Low ur 10–20% | V 0.6 CL 0.6 Mwt 201.2 PSA 93.1 Å ² log P -0.41 | MISONIDAZOLE Radiosensitizer Metabolism: O-demethylation, glucuronidation, reduction of NO ₂ to NH ₂ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.2–4.6 h* F – pb – ur 79%* | V – CL – Mwt 247.2 PSA 129 Å ² log P -1.41 | DORANIDAZOLE *iv Antineoplastic (radiosensitizer) Metabolism: glucuronidation, carbonation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.6 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 4–6 CL 8–15 Mwt 254.3 PSA 87.1 Å ² log P 0.97 | PIMONIDAZOLE, Ro 03-8799 Metabolism: oxidation to piperidine N-oxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 h F – pb – ur – | V 3 CL 0.8 Mwt 226.2 PSA 76.1 Å ² log P -0.15 | NIMORAZOLE Antiprotozoal, hypoxic radiosensitizer |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–6 h F – pb – ur – | V 0.5–0.9 CL 1.2–2.5 Mwt 214.2 PSA 113 Å ² log P -1.37 | ETANIDAZOLE Antineoplastic (radiosensitizer); Metabolism: reduction |

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| | $t_{1/2}$ 3.5±0.6 h* <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> 87±9%* | V 0.75±0.12 CL 3.2±0.9 <i>Mwt</i> 282.2 PSA 108 Å ² $\log P$ 0.29 | SR-4554 *iv Hypoxia probe |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 12±3 h* <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> 70%* | V 0.56 CL – <i>Mwt</i> 302.2 PSA 87.8 Å ² $\log P$ 1.35 | EF5 *iv Hypoxia probe |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 11–14 h <i>F</i> 100% <i>pb</i> 44% <i>ur</i> 5% | V 0.6 CL – <i>Mwt</i> 260.3 PSA 92.7 Å ² $\log P$ 0.91 | BENZNIDAZOLE Antiprotozoal Reduction of NO ₂ leads to reactive electrophile |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> <0.5% | V – CL – <i>Mwt</i> 246.2 PSA 111 Å ² $\log P$ 0.67 | AZANIDAZOLE Antiprotozoal |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 13 min <i>F</i> 10–14%* <i>pb</i> 95% <i>ur</i> – | V 3.3* CL 273±121* <i>Mwt</i> 279.3 PSA 98.2 Å ² $\log P$ 2.13 | FEXINIDAZOLE *dog Antiprotozoal Metabolism: oxidation to sulfoxide and sulfone; crosses bbb |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 16–20 h <i>F</i> 40% <i>pb</i> 95% <i>ur</i> – | V – CL – <i>Mwt</i> 359.3 PSA 86.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.70 | PA-824 Antibacterial |

| | | | |
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–9 h F 70% pb >99% ur <1% | V 5±2 CL 5.7 Mwt 381.4 PSA 74.2 Å ² log P 5.77 | PLECONARIL Antiviral |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ Short F 5% pb 70% ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 265.3 PSA 92.3 Å ² log P 3.00 | ALBENDAZOLE Anthelmintic (veterinary); active metabolite: sulfoxide (see below); poor oral bioavailability due to low solubility in water and high first-pass metabolism |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–12 h F – pb 70% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 281.3 PSA 103 Å ² log P 0.68 | ALBENDAZOLE SULFOXIDE Main active metabolite of albendazole and netobimin Metabolism: oxidation to sulfone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–6 h F 22% pb 90–95% ur <2% | V 1–2 CL 3.7 Mwt 295.3 PSA 84.1 Å ² log P 2.83 | MEBENDAZOLE Anthelmintic; poor solubility Metabolism: carbamate hydrolysis, reduction of ketone to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–8 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 359.7 PSA 63.2 Å ² log P 5.39 | TRICLABENDAZOLE Anthelmintic Prodrug of sulfoxide; all values for sulfoxide on oral administration of triclabendazole |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–14 h F 30–100% pb 97% ur 0.4–2.0% | V 5.6 CL 11.3 Mwt 234.2 PSA 76.4 Å ² log P 2.92 | RILUZOLE Neuroprotective Metabolism: N-hydroxylation, then O- and N-glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.0±1.5 h F 65% pb >95% ur 40% | V – CL – Mwt 258.3 PSA 119 Å ² log P 2.14 | ETHOXZOLAMIDE Carbonic anhydrase inhibitor, diuretic, antiglaucoma agent |

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|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h <i>F</i> Low pb – ur <1% | <i>V</i> 2.8* CL 27* Mwt 201.3 PSA 69.8 Å ² log <i>P</i> 2.47 | THIABENDAZOLE *anephric patient Anthelmintic Metabolism: aromatic 5-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–5 h <i>F</i> 56–92%* pb – ur 70% | <i>V</i> – CL/ <i>F</i> 7 Mwt 244.3 PSA 83.8 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.30 | VELIPARIB *animals Poly(ADP-ribose)polymerase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolism: oxidation to lactam, hydrolysis of amide |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; *F*, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; *V*, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

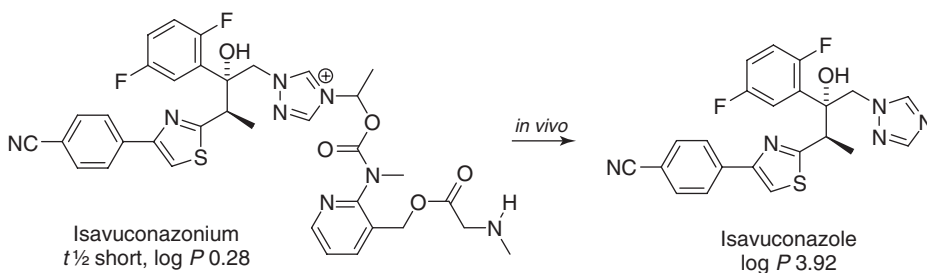
58

Triazoles

Lipophilic imidazoles and 1,2,4-triazoles are important antifungal drugs (Table 58.1). Azole antifungals inhibit the fungal sterol 14- α -demethylase, thereby blocking the biosynthesis of ergosterol from lanosterol. This leads to the accumulation of methylsterols in cell membranes and thus to the impairment of membrane-bound enzyme systems, which keeps fungi from growing. Triazoles usually have longer half-lives and a lower effect on human sterol biosynthesis than imidazoles, and most antifungals under development are, therefore, triazoles.


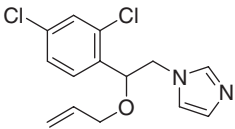
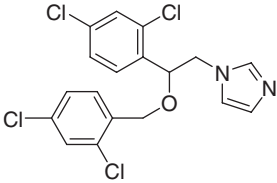
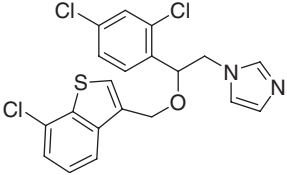
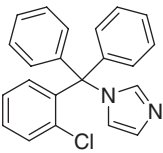
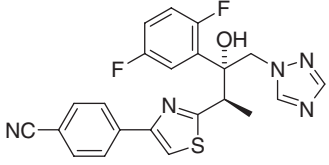
One of the first antifungal azoles launched was clotrimazole (1973). This highly insoluble compound is mainly used topically, but for related lipophilic azoles (e.g., miconazole), a parenteral formulation has been developed. Azoles with higher oral bioavailability became available later. Improved oral bioavailability was attained by lowering their lipophilicity and enhancing their metabolic stability, for example, by conversion to tertiary alcohols. Quick renal excretion was avoided by adjusting the lipophilicity to a value that still provided for a high degree of tubular reabsorption. In other words, high oral bioavailability and long half-lives were attained by careful adjustment of the log *P* to reduce the affinity to CYP enzymes and improve the solubility in water to a degree that does not cause quick renal excretion.

Lipophilic triazoles can also be rendered more soluble by transient N-alkylation to cationic triazolium prodrugs. One example of this strategy is isavuconazonium (Scheme 58.1), an oral prodrug of isavuconazole.



Scheme 58.1 Metabolism of isavuconazonium.

Table 58.1 Triazoles and related compounds. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15–40 h F 100% pb Low ur 1–4% | V 0.6–1.0 CL – Mwt 82.1 PSA 28.7 \AA^2 $\log P$ 1.10 | FOMEPIZOLE Alcohol dehydrogenase inhibitor, antidote to methanol and ethylene glycol poisoning Metabolites: 4-(hydroxymethyl)pyrazole, 4-carboxypyrazole, N -glucuronides |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11 h* F 1.4%* pb – ur 0–10%** | V – CL – Mwt 297.2 PSA 27.1 \AA^2 $\log P$ 3.56 | ENILCONAZOLE *cow **rat Antifungal |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20–25 h F 25–30% pb 88% ur <1% | V 20 CL – Mwt 416.1 PSA 27.1 \AA^2 $\log P$ 4.97 | MICONAZOLE Topical antifungal Metabolism: N - and O -dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h (rat) F 48% (rat) pb >99% ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 437.8 PSA 55.3 \AA^2 $\log P$ 5.77 | SERTACONAZOLE Topical antifungal |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F Poor pb 90% ur <1%* | V 5 ± 2 CL – Mwt 344.8 PSA 17.8 \AA^2 $\log P$ 4.92 | CLOTRIMAZOLE *dog iv; antifungal Metabolism: N -dealkylation (to yield imidazole, chlorotriylalcohol, and (2-chlorophenyl)(4-hydroxyphenyl)-phenylmethane |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 60–120 h* F 100%* pb 98%* ur <1% | V 7 CL 0.5–0.7 Mwt 437.5 PSA 111 \AA^2 $\log P$ 3.92 | ISAVUCONAZOLE Antifungal *drug on oral administration of the prodrug isavuconazolium (see text) |

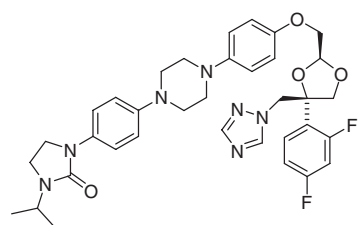
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 103–240 h F 48–74%* pb 98% ur – | V 11 CL – Mwt 437.5 PSA 111 Å ² log P 3.89 | RAVUCONAZOLE *animals Antifungal |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4.6 h (iv)* F 100%* pb – ur – | V 2.3* CL 7.7* Mwt 542.6 PSA 118 Å ² log P 3.70 | CS-758 *monkey Antifungal |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 30–56 h F 100%* pb – ur 0% | V 2.4** CL 0.16** Mwt 431.8 PSA 78.7 Å ² log P 3.00 | ALBACONAZOLE *dog, **rat Antifungal Metabolism: hydroxylation, then glucuronidation and sulfation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h F 96% pb 58% ur <1% | V 2.0–4.6 CL 8.3 Mwt 349.3 PSA 71.8 Å ² log P 0.93 | VORICONAZOLE Antifungal Metabolism: N-oxidation of pyrimidine, hydroxylation of methyl |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 49 h F 100% pb – ur 76% | V 0.62 CL 0.19 Mwt 331.3 PSA 93.5 Å ² log P 0.97 | GENACONAZOLE Antifungal Metabolism: negligible |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 32±5 h F >90% pb 11±1% ur 75±9% | V 0.60 CL 0.27±0.07 Mwt 306.3 PSA 81.7 Å ² log P 0.45 | FLUCONAZOLE Antifungal Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-oxidation |

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| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.1 h (iv) F – pb 96% ur <1% (iv) V 0.15 CL 1.3 Mwt 386.3 PSA 128 Å ² log P –1.23 | FOSFLUCONAZOLE Prodrug of fluconazole for parenteral administration |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.9–3.4 h F – pb – ur – V – CL – Mwt 322.3 PSA 69.8 Å ² log P 2.41 | FINROZOLE Aromatase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 42–82 h F 100% pb 59% ur 4–6% V 1.9–2.2 CL 0.3–1.0 Mwt 285.3 PSA 78.3 Å ² log P 0.43 | LETROZOLE Antineoplastic Metabolism: N-dealkylation to benzhydrol and triazole, then glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 9 h F – pb – ur <5% V – CL 10 Mwt 223.3 PSA 41.6 Å ² log P 1.48 | FADROZOLE Aromatase inhibitor, oral antineoplastic Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 41 h F 84–100% pb 40% ur 10% V 1.4 CL 0.4 Mwt 293.4 PSA 78.3 Å ² log P 0.97 | ANASTROZOLE Aromatase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolism: N-dealkylation, hydroxylation, glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 8–12 h F 60–85% pb 34% ur <2% V 0.8–1.2 CL – Mwt 238.2 PSA 73.8 Å ² log P 1.00 | RUFINAMIDE Antiepileptic Metabolite: carboxylic acid |

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| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1–2.1 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 377.5 PSA 78.9 Å ² $\log P$ 5.16 | RAMBAZOLE, R-115866 Retinoic acid metabolism blocking agent Metabolism: hydroxylation of 3-pentyl, aromatic benzothiazole hydroxylation (para to N) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7 h F 36% (rat) pb 90% ur <1% | V – CL/F 3.8 Mwt 395.4 PSA 78.1 Å ² $\log P$ 3.01 | TPA-023 GABA agonist, anxiolytic Metabolism: hydroxylation of <i>tert</i> -butyl, N-deethylation, N-glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3.3±1.0 h F – pb 99% ur <1% | V/F 2.4±1.6 CL/F 8.4±4.1 Mwt 531.4 PSA 69.1 Å ² $\log P$ 4.04 | KETOCONAZOLE Antifungal Metabolism: N-deacetylation, oxidative degradation of piperazine, O-dealkylation, aromatic hydroxylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 21±6 h F 55% pb 99.8% ur <0.1% | V/F 14±5 CL/F 23±10 Mwt 705.6 PSA 101 Å ² $\log P$ 5.00 | ITRACONAZOLE Antifungal, CYP3A4 inhibitor Metabolism: hydroxylation of CH ₂ Me |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 20–66 h F 11–27%* pb >98% ur <0.2% | V 27 CL – Mwt 700.8 PSA 107 Å ² $\log P$ 2.25 | POSACONAZOLE *dog Antifungal Metabolism: glucuronidation |

(continued overleaf)



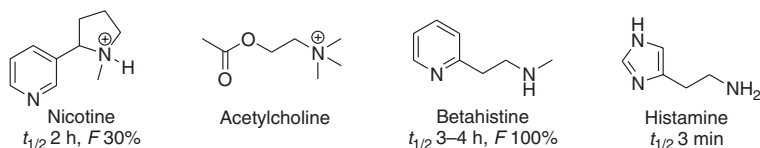
| | | | | |
|-----------|---------|-------|---------------------|-------------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 56–81 h | V | – | PRAMICONAZOLE, R-126638 |
| F | – | CL | – | Antifungal |
| pb | – | Mwt | 659.7 | |
| ur | – | PSA | 88.4 Å ² | |
| | | log P | 4.19 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; GABA, γ -aminobutyric acid.

59

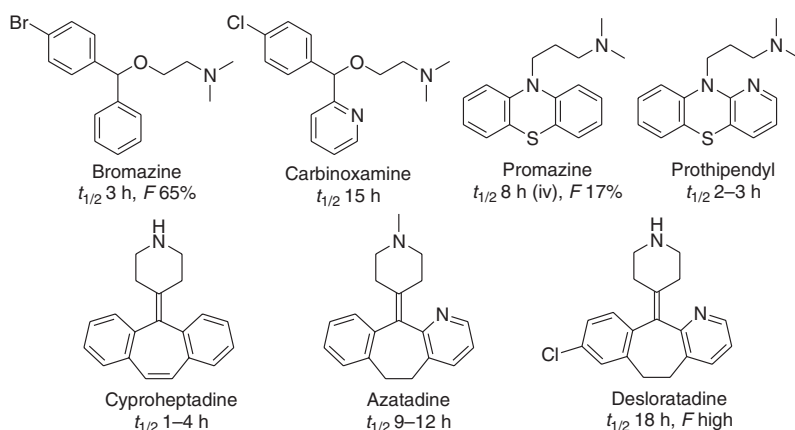
Pyridines, Pyrimidines, and Related Compounds

Pyridines (pK_a 5) are common substructures of drugs (Table 59.1) and natural products (vitamins and alkaloids) and can serve as bioisostere of carbonyl groups or of other basic heterocycles, such as imidazoles. Thus, nicotine is an acetylcholine agonist, the pyridine ring acting as an ester analog, and the vasodilator betahistine is a histamine agonist (Scheme 59.1).

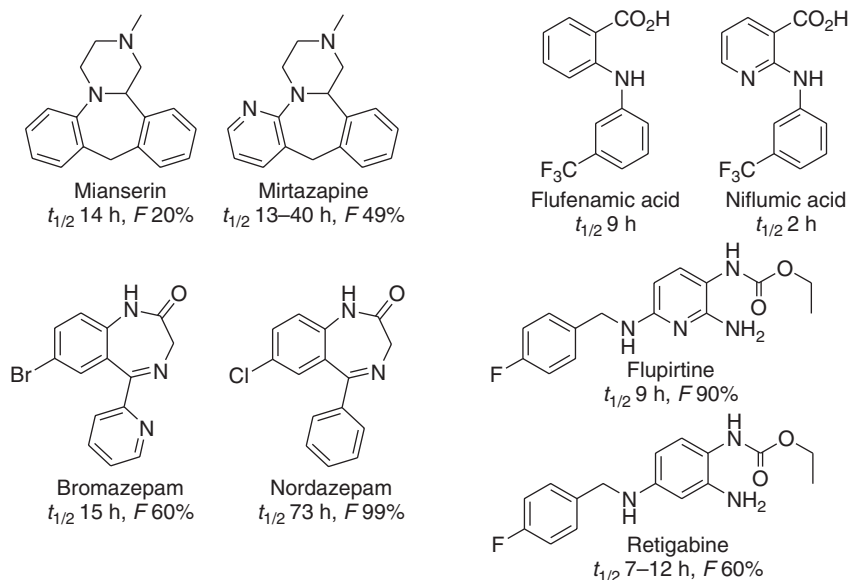


Scheme 59.1 Pyridines as ester and imidazole mimetics.

Despite their basicity and nucleophilicity, pyridines have also been used as bioisosteres of phenyl groups. Pyridines are more water soluble than the corresponding benzenes and may lead to fewer toxic metabolites. Thus, aminopyridines can be useful bioisosteres of potentially toxic anilines. In the examples shown in Scheme 59.2, a benzene ring was replaced by pyridine without severely modifying target selectivity.

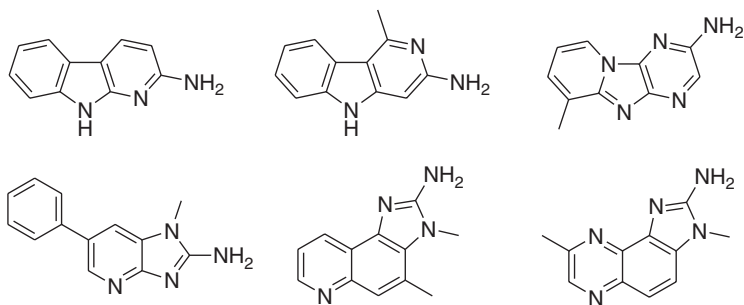


Scheme 59.2 PK-comparison (pharmacokinetics) pyridyl *versus* phenyl.



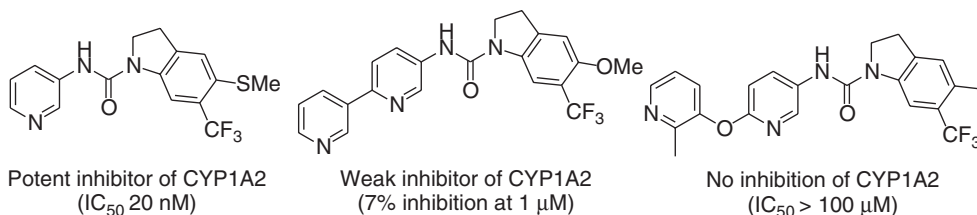
Scheme 59.2 (Continued).

However, not all heterocyclic amines are toxicologically safe. The compounds shown in Scheme 59.3 are formed when meat is heated (e.g., on frying) by the reaction of creatine or creatinine with amino acids and carbohydrates (Maillard reaction). All these compounds are carcinogenic for rodents, and the probable cause for the increased risk of colorectal cancer in people who frequently eat meat.



Scheme 59.3 Carcinogenic polycyclic heteroarenes.

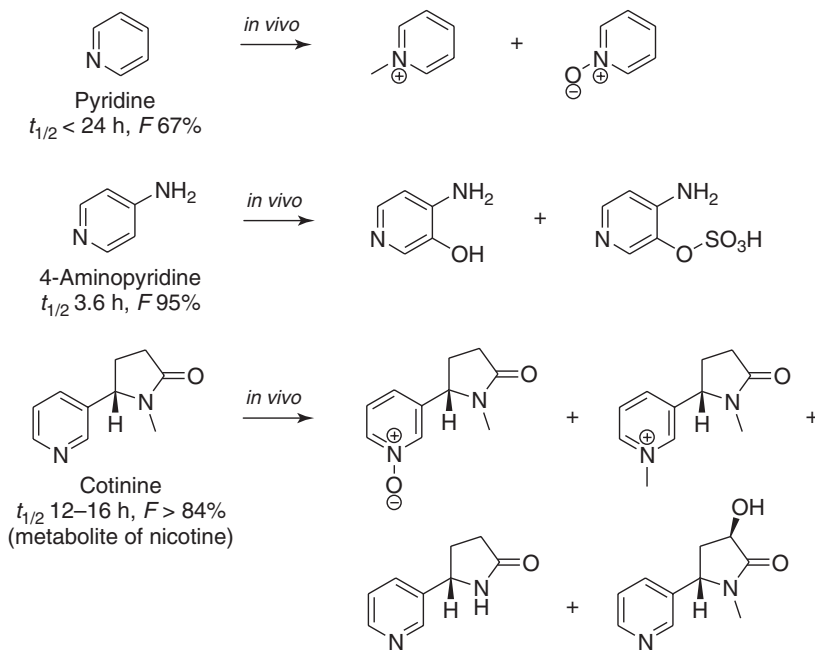
One further potential problem of pyridines is their ability to coordinate to iron, which can lead to CYP (cytochrome P) inhibition. This will be important for highly basic and 2,6-unsubstituted pyridines but can be avoided with electron-withdrawing substituents and by steric shielding of the nitrogen atom. In the example shown in Scheme 59.4 [1], the initial leads were strong inhibitors of CYP1A2. By increasing



Scheme 59.4 Pyridines as CYP inhibitors.

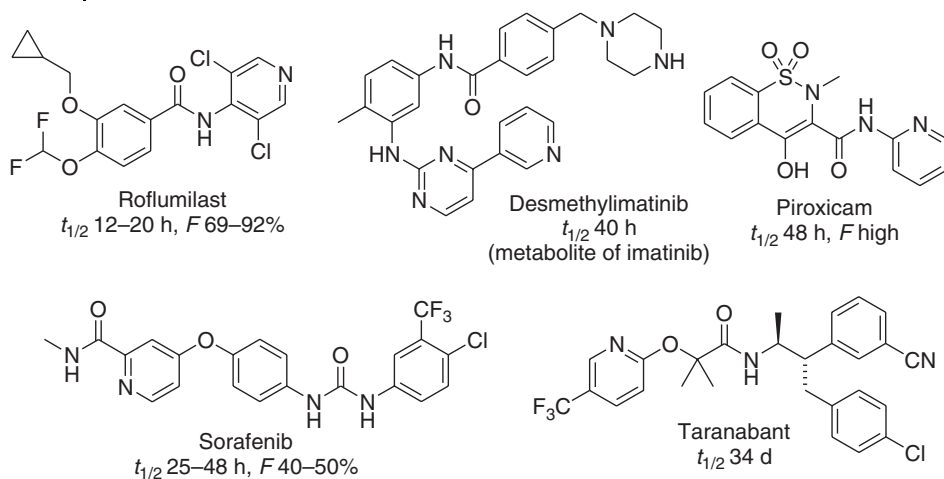
the steric shielding of the pyridyl nitrogen atoms, the affinity for CYP enzymes could be effectively suppressed.

Typical metabolic transformations of pyridines include N-oxidation, N-methylation, and C-hydroxylation (Scheme 59.5). Interestingly, N-methylpyridinium salts, such as trigonelline or the metabolites of bioactive pyridines, do not react as electrophilic methylating agents and show little toxicity.



Scheme 59.5 Metabolism of pyridines.

The rate of pyridine metabolism varies strongly and depends on the precise substitution pattern and the overall physicochemical properties of the drug. Examples of long-lived pyridines are shown in Scheme 59.6.



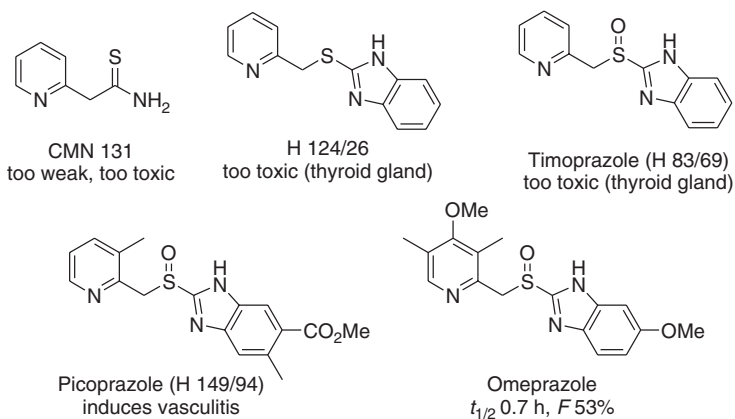
Scheme 59.6 Pyridines as drugs.

59.1

Proton Pump Inhibitors

In 1967, the “gastrin” project was initiated at Astra in Hässle (Sweden) with the aim of developing a drug for suppression of gastric acid secretion. As starting hypothesis, it was assumed that the local anesthetic lidocaine was capable of inhibiting the acid-stimulating hormone gastrin. After five years of development work, however, it turned out that such a gastrin inhibitor had no effect *in vivo* on acid secretion (thus the importance of early proof of concept in animals).

Looking for a new lead, researchers at Astra chose CMN 131 (Scheme 59.7), a weak inhibitor of acid secretion developed at Searle. The compound was too toxic because of the thiocarbonyl group, but served well as lead.



Scheme 59.7 Development of omeprazole.



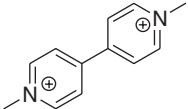
This time, animal models were used to test new compounds, and within a few years, the benzimidazoles H 124/26 and timoprazole were found. Both were more potent than CMN 131, but showed thyroid-gland-related toxicity. The less toxic picoprazole was discovered in 1976, but disappointingly, this compound induced vasculitis in some dogs. Finally, in 1979, omeprazole was prepared and shown to be a potent and safe inhibitor of gastric acid production. Its new mechanism of action was the inhibition of gastric H^+ , K^+ -ATPase, and omeprazole turned out to be superior to the previously used histamine H_2 antagonists. Racemic omeprazole was launched 1988 in Sweden, while the enantiomerically pure *S*-isomer, which is about four times as potent as the *R*-isomer, was approved in 2000. The *S*-isomer is prepared by enantioselective oxidation of the corresponding thioether with the aid of a chiral titanium complex [2].

Typical metabolic transformation of omeprazole-type proton pump inhibitors includes oxidation to a sulfone, reduction to a thioether, and O-demethylation (Table 59.2).

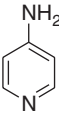
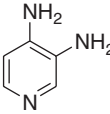
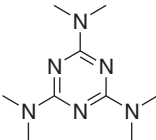
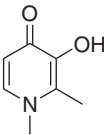
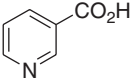
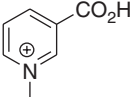
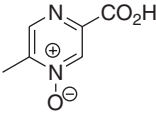
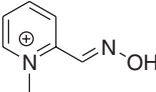
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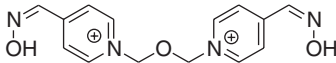
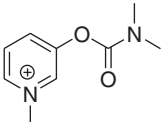
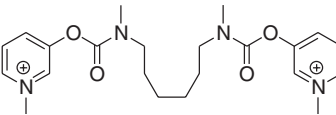
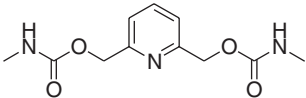
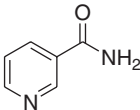
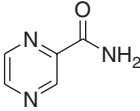
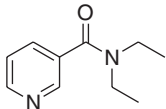
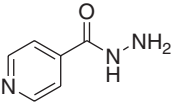
1. Bromidge, S.M. *et al.* (2000) Biarylcarbamoylindolines are novel and selective 5-HT_{2C} receptor inverse agonists: identification of 5-methyl-1-[[2-[(2-methyl-3-pyridyl)oxy]-5-pyridyl]carbamoyl]-6-trifluoromethylindoline (SB-243213) as a potential antidepressant/anxiolytic agent. *J. Med. Chem.*, **43**, 1123–1134.
2. Carlsson, E., Lindberg, P., and von Unge, S. (May 2002) Two of a kind. *Chem. Br.*, 42–45.

Table 59.1 Pyridines, pyrimidines, and related azines. V in l kg⁻¹, CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹, Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

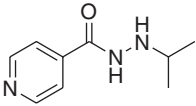
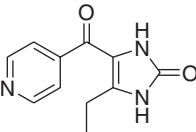
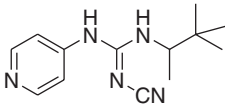
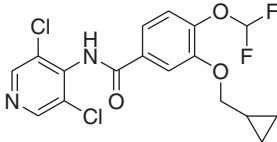
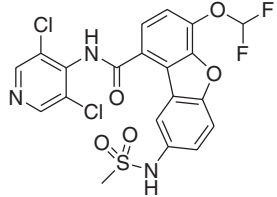
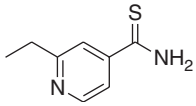
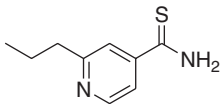
| | | | |
|---|---|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <24 h F 67% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 79.1 PSA 12.9 Å ² log P 0.84 | PYRIDINE Metabolism: N-methylation, N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F – pb – ur 60–70% | V – CL – Mwt 94.1 PSA 3.89 Å ² log P –4.39 | N-METHYLPYRIDINIUM Contained in coffee, metabolite of pyridine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h F <30% pb – ur 90% | V 1–3 CL – Mwt 186.3 PSA 7.77 Å ² log P –5.82 | PARAQUAT Herbicide |

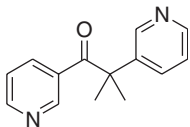
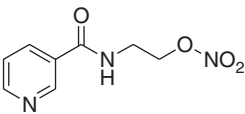
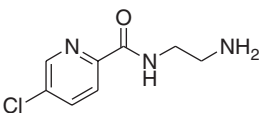
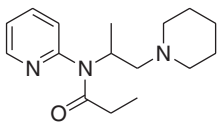
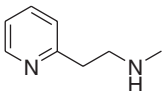
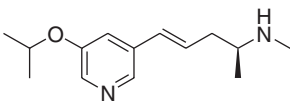
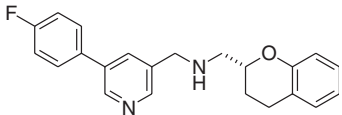
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| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.6±0.9 h F 95% pb Negligible ur >90% | V 2.6±0.9 CL 10.2±2.3 Mwt 94.1 PSA 38.9 Å ² log P 0.34 | 4-AMINOPYRIDINE, FAMPRIDINE, DALFAMPRIDINE Potassium channel blocker, treatment of multiple sclerosis Metabolites: 3-hydroxy and sulfate thereof |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5–2 h F 30% pb – ur – | V – CL 30 Mwt 109.1 PSA 64.9 Å ² log P –0.34 | 3,4-DIAMINOPYRIDINE, AMIFAMPRIDINE Potassium channel blocker, treatment of multiple sclerosis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–14 h F Low* pb 94% ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 210.3 PSA 48.4 Å ² log P 2.53 | ALTRETAMINE *variable Antineoplastic (ovarian cancer) Metabolism: hydroxylation at methyl groups followed by demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 h F – pb <10% ur >80% | V 1.6–1.7 CL 8.3–9.4 Mwt 139.2 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P –0.65 | DEFERIPRONE Chelating agent Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20–45 min F 60–76% pb <20% ur 12% | V 0.3 CL – Mwt 123.1 PSA 50.2 Å ² log P 0.22 | NICOTINIC ACID, NIACIN, VITAMIN B ₃ Metabolites: N-nicotinoyl glycine, nicotinamide, NAD |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–6 h F – pb – ur 40–60% | V – CL – Mwt 138.1 PSA 41.2 Å ² log P –3.98 | TRIGONELLINE Contained in coffee |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–14 h F 100% pb 0% ur >90% | V 0.3–0.4 CL – Mwt 154.12 PSA 75.7 Å ² log P –1.00 | ACIPIMOX Antihyperlipoproteinemic Metabolism: N-deoxygenation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 20–30% pb Low ur 80±13% | V 3±2 CL 9±4 Mwt 137.2 PSA 36.5 Å ² log P –2.85 | PRALIDOXIME Cholinesterase reactivator (antidote against cholinesterase inhibitor poisoning), crosses bbb Metabolite: 1-methyl-2-cyanopyridinium |

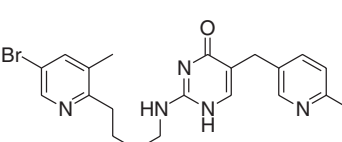
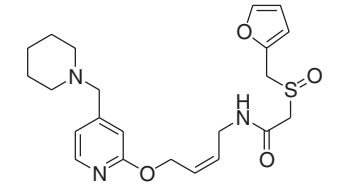
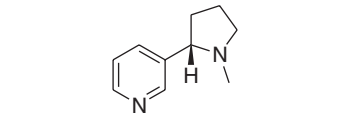
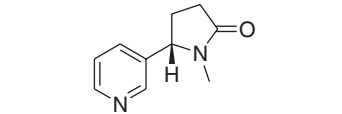
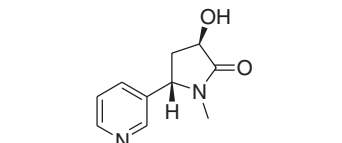
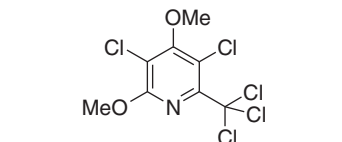
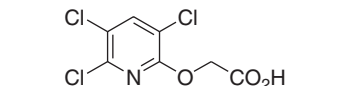
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|---|--|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3 h (im) F Low pb Low ur 90% | V 0.2 CL – Mwt 288.3 PSA 82.2 Å ² $\log P$ –5.72 | OBIDOXIME Cholinesterase reactivator (antidote against cholinesterase inhibitor poisoning) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.9±0.2 h F 14±3% pb Low ur 85±5% | V 1.1±0.3 CL 8.5±1.7 Mwt 181.2 PSA 33.4 Å ² $\log P$ –3.93 | PYRIDOSTIGMINE Cholinergic, does not cross bbb Metabolite: 3-hydroxy- <i>N</i> -methylpyridinium |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 69 h F 5% pb – ur 7% | V – CL – Mwt 416.5 PSA 66.9 Å ² $\log P$ –5.29 | DISTIGMINE Cholinesterase inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–8 h F – pb – ur – | V/F 0.5–1.3 CL – Mwt 253.3 PSA 89.6 Å ² $\log P$ 0.24 | PYRIDINOL CARBAMATE Antiarteriosclerotic Metabolism: demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–6 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 122.12 PSA 56 Å ² $\log P$ –0.37 | NICOTINAMIDE VITAMIN B ₃ Metabolism: N-methylation of pyridine, then addition of water at position 4 and para to carbamoyl group |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±2 h F 100% pb 10–50% ur 0–3% | V/F 0.70±0.09 CL/F 0.90±0.15 Mwt 123.11 PSA 68.9 Å ² $\log P$ –0.71 | PYRAZINAMIDE Tuberculostatic, crosses bbb Metabolite: pyrazinecarboxylic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 178.2 PSA 33.2 Å ² $\log P$ 0.92 | NIKETHAMIDE Respiratory stimulant Metabolism: N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 h F – pb 0–15% ur 10–30% | V 0.67±0.15 CL 7.4±2.0* Mwt 137.1 PSA 68.0 Å ² $\log P$ –0.77 | ISONIAZIDE *Fast acetylators; slow acetylators: 3.7±1.1; antibacterial, hepatotoxic Metabolism: N-acetylation |

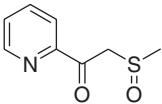
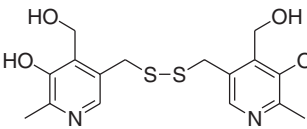
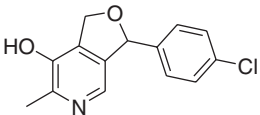
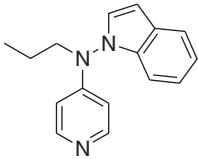
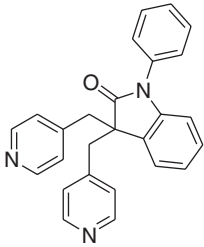
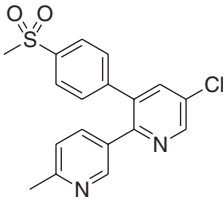
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10 h F – pb – ur 15% | V – CL – Mwt 179.2 PSA 54.0 Å ² log P 0.41 | IPRONIAZID MAO inhibitor, antidepressant Metabolite: 4-pyridinecarboxylic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3 h F >80% pb 85% ur 64% | V 0.6–1.7 CL 7–9 Mwt 217.2 PSA 71.1 Å ² log P 2.15 | PIROXIMONE Inotropic Metabolism (dog): reduction of ketone to alcohol, oxidative cleavage to isonicotinic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–3.0 h F 60% pb 60–65% ur 4–10% | V 3.4 CL 9.5 Mwt 245.3 PSA 73.1 Å ² log P 2.31 | PINACIDIL Potassium channel opener, antihypertensive Metabolism: N-oxidation of pyridine ($t_{1/2}$ N-oxide: 2.5 h), hydroxylation of <i>t</i> -Bu, N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–20 h F 69–92% pb 99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 403.2 PSA 60.5 Å ² log P 2.31 | ROFLUMILAST PDE4 inhibitor, bronchodilator Metabolite: pyridine N-oxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–30 h F >50%* pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 516.3 PSA 119 Å ² log P 4.56 | OGLEMILAST *mice PDE4 inhibitor Metabolite: pyridine N-oxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.9±0.3 h F 100% pb 10–30% ur <1% | V 1.4±0.3 CL – Mwt 166.2 PSA 71.0 Å ² log P 1.17 | ETHIONAMIDE Tuberculostatic Metabolism: S-oxidation, conversion to carboxamide, reduction of thioamide to hydroxymethyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.4 h F – pb – ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 180.3 PSA 71.0 Å ² log P 1.68 | PROTIONAMIDE Tuberculostatic Metabolism: S-oxidation, conversion to carboxamide and carboxylic acid, N-methylation |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5–2.5 h F – pb – ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 226.3 PSA 42.9 Å ² log P 1.14 | METYRAPONE, METOPYRONE Oral diagnostic aid Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8–1.5 h F 75% pb 24% ur <1% | V 0.5–1.4 CL 7.3–16.4 Mwt 211.2 PSA 97.0 Å ² log P 0.74 | NICORANDIL Antianginal Metabolism: hydrolysis to nicotinic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–9 h F 78% pb – ur – | V 3.6±0.6 CL – Mwt 199.6 PSA 68.0 Å ² log P 0.20 | LAZABEMIDE MAO inhibitor Metabolism: oxidation of CH ₂ NH ₂ to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 h F >97% pb – ur 24% | V 2.3 CL 6.3 Mwt 275.4 PSA 36.4 Å ² log P 3.01 | PROPIRAM Analgesic, narcotic; Metabolism: piperidine hydroxylation, then oxidation to lactam, then hydrolysis of lactam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–4 h F 100% pb 0–5% ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 136.2 PSA 24.9 Å ² log P –0.02 | BETAHISTINE Vasodilator, antvertigo, histamine agonist Metabolites: desmethyl and 2-pyridylacetic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–9 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 234.3 PSA 34.2 Å ² log P 2.47 | ISPRONICLINE Nicotinic acetylcholine partial agonist, nootropic Metabolism: O-dealkylation, N-demethylation, pyridine N-oxidation, oxidative degradation of side chain |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 h F 89% pb >99.9% ur <5% | V 0.3–0.6 CL 0.7 Mwt 348.4 PSA 34.2 Å ² log P 4.38 | SARIZOTAN 5-HT _{1A} agonist for treatment of dyskinesia Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation (para to O), hydroxylation at CH ₂ CH ₂ , N-de(pyridylmethylation), then oxidation to pyridine-3-carboxylic acid and chroman-2-carboxylic acid |

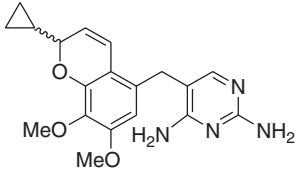
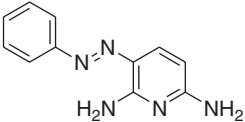
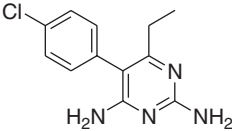
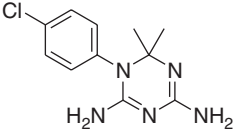
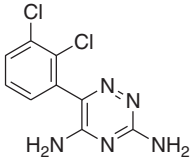
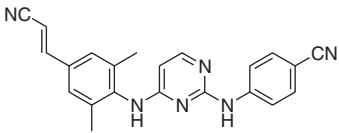
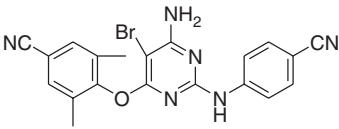
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h F High pb >99% ur <0.2% | V – CL – Mwt 442.4 PSA 79.3 Å ² log P 3.76 | TEMELASTINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist; does not cross bbb Metabolism: N-glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F – pb – ur – | V 0.8 CL 4 Mwt 431.6 PSA 104 Å ² log P 2.24 | LAFUTIDINE Histamine H ₂ antagonist Metabolism: hydroxylation, oxidation to sulfone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.0±0.7 h F 30%* pb 5±3% ur 17±9% | V 2.6±0.9 CL 18.5±5.4 Mwt 162.2 PSA 16.1 Å ² log P 0.57 | NICOTINE *pulmonal: 90% Tobacco alkaloid Metabolism: N-demethylation (to nornicotine, $t_{1/2}$ 7–9 h), N-oxidation and hydroxylation of pyrrolidine, N-methylation of pyridine, conversion to cotinine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–16 h F 84–100% pb – ur 12% | V 0.9 CL 0.9 Mwt 176.2 PSA 33.2 Å ² log P 0.08 | COTININE Metabolite of nicotine Metabolism: N-methylation and oxidation of pyridine, hydroxylation of pyrrolidinone, demethylation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–10 h* F – pb – ur – | V 0.5–1.1 CL 1.1–2.6 Mwt 192.2 PSA 53.4 Å ² log P –1.12 | 3-HYDROXYCOTININE *iv Metabolite of cotinine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18 h F 49±18% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 325.4 PSA 31.4 Å ² log P 5.26 | PENCLOFEDINE Antineoplastic Metabolism: demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h F – pb – ur 80% | V – CL – Mwt 256.5 PSA 59.4 Å ² log P 2.35 | TRICLOPYR Herbicide |

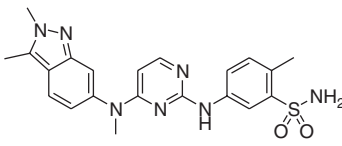
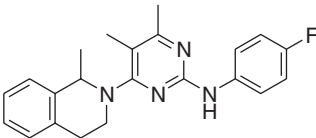
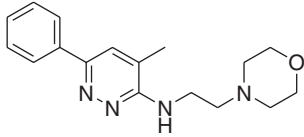
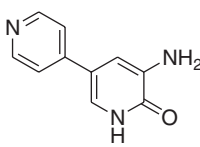
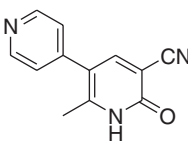
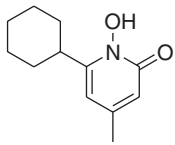
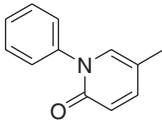
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2 h F – pb – ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 183.2 PSA 66.2 Å ² log P 0.02 | OXISURAN Immunosuppressor Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol ($t_{1/2}$ 55 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 368.5 PSA 157 Å ² log P 0.64 | PYRITINOL Nootropic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–18 h F 75% (rat) pb 97% ur <1% | V 0.6 CL – Mwt 261.7 PSA 42.4 Å ² log P 1.78 | CICLETANINE Antihypertensive Metabolism: glucuronidation, sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7±2 h* F – pb – ur 1%* | V – CL 21±7* Mwt 251.3 PSA 21.1 Å ² log P 4.18 | BESIPIRDINE *monkey Nootropic Metabolism: N-depropylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 h F <10% (rat) pb – ur Negligible | V 2 (rat) CL 0.6 Mwt 391.5 PSA 46.1 Å ² log P 1.95 | LINOPIRDINE CNS stimulant, nootropic Metabolism: N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 21–27 h F 100% pb 92% ur <1% | V 1.6–1.7 CL 0.7–0.8 Mwt 358.8 PSA 68.3 Å ² log P 2.21 | ETORICOXIB Antiinflammatory, analgesic Metabolism (CYP3A4): oxidation of methylpyridine to hydroxymethyl- and carboxypyridine |

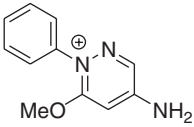
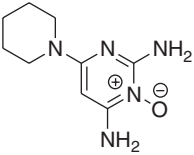
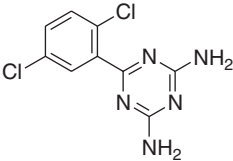
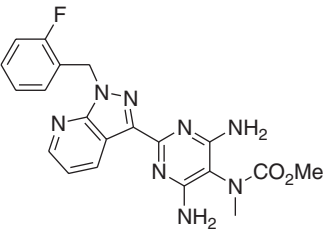
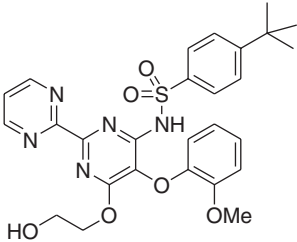
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 8 h* F 75%* pb – ur – V – CL – Mwt 349.4 PSA 57.0 Å ² log P 3.70 | PERAMPANEL *monkey AMPA antagonist, antiepileptic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8–3.2 h F >80% pb 26% ur 70–80% V 0.67 CL 4.4 Mwt 283.3 PSA 99.6 Å ² log P 0.54 | CADRALAZINE Antihypertensive Metabolism: hydrolysis of carbamate |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7–12 h F 60% pb 80% ur 36% V 6.2 CL 11 Mwt 303.3 PSA 76.4 Å ² log P 0.96 | RETIGABINE, EZOGABINE Anticonvulsant Metabolism: N-acetylation, N-glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 8.5 h F 90%* pb 80% ur 15% V 1.2 CL 1.6 Mwt 304.3 PSA 89.3 Å ² log P 1.60 | FLUPIRTINE *rectal: 72% Analgesic, crosses bbb Metabolism: carbamate hydrolysis, then N-acetylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 32–35 h F 80–90% pb 93% ur 4–7% V 1.5 CL 0.6 Mwt 339.2 PSA 96.3 Å ² log P 2.29 | BRODIMOPRIM Antibacterial Metabolism: N-oxidation, hydroxylation of methylene group, O-demethylation, then O-glucuronidation and sulfation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 10±2 h F 100% pb 37±5% ur 63±10% V 1.6±0.2 CL 1.9±0.3 Mwt 290.3 PSA 106 Å ² log P 0.59 | TRIMETHOPRIM Inhibitor of dihydrofolate biosynthesis, antibacterial Metabolism: O-demethylation, then oxidation to o-quinones, p-quinone methides, and iminoquinone methides |

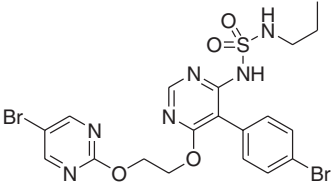
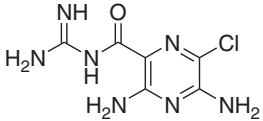
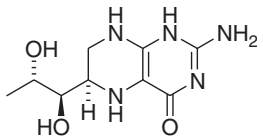
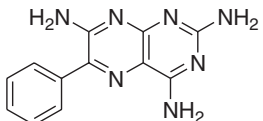
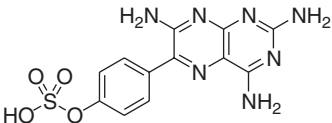
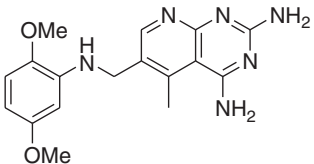
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h (iv) F 41% pb 92–94% ur 2% | V 1.3–1.7 CL 7.8–9.2 Mwt 354.4 PSA 106 Å ² log P 2.20 | ICLAPRIM Antibacterial Metabolism: O-demethylation, oxidative ring scission of pyran, dihydroxylation of alkene, N-oxidation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 43–75 min F >60% pb – ur 65% | V – CL – Mwt 213.2 PSA 89.7 Å ² log P 2.21 | PHENAZOPYRIDINE Analgesic Metabolism: phenyl 2- and 4-hydroxylation, reductive cleavage of N=N bond |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 81±32 h F 100% pb 87±1% ur 65% | V/F 2.3±0.6 CL/ F 0.41±0.06 Mwt 248.7 PSA 77.8 Å ² log P 2.75 | PYRIMETHAMINE Antiprotozoal Metabolite: N-oxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–15 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 251.7 PSA 80.0 Å ² log P 0.95 | CYCLOGUANIL Active metabolite of proguanil |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18–37 h F 100% pb 40–60% ur 5–10% | V 0.9–1.3 CL 0.35–0.60 Mwt 256.1 PSA 90.7 Å ² log P 1.24 | LAMOTRIGINE Anticonvulsant Metabolites: N-glucuronide, N-oxide, N-methyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 36–48 h F 100%* pb 99.7% ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 366.4 PSA 97.4 Å ² log P 3.63 | RILPIVIRINE *dog Antiviral (HIV) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 30–40 h F – pb 99.9% ur 0% | V 6.5 CL – Mwt 435.3 PSA 121 Å ² log P 4.19 | ETRAVIRINE Antiviral (HIV) Metabolism: hydroxylation of methyl followed by glucuronidation |

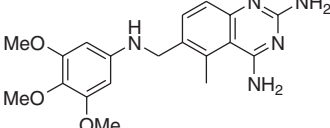
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 31 h F 14–39% pb >99% ur <4% | V 0.3 CL 1.4 Mwt 437.5 PSA 127 Å ² log P 1.98 | PAZOPANIB Tyrosine kinase inhibitor, antiangiogenic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.2–2.4 h F 40% (rat) pb – ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 362.4 PSA 41.1 Å ² log P 5.29 | REVAPRAZAN, YH1885 Proton pump inhibitor, antiulcerative |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 h F 5% (rat) pb – ur Trace (rat) | V – CL – Mwt 298.4 PSA 50.3 Å ² log P 2.04 | MINAPRINE Antidepressant Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation, N-oxidation, N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.4–5.8 h F 93±12% pb 35–49% ur 10–40% | V 1.3±0.3 CL 2.4–11.6 Mwt 187.2 PSA 68.0 Å ² log P –0.21 | AMRINONE Phosphodiesterase III inhibitor, cardiotonic Metabolism: N-acetylation, N-acylation with glycolic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8±0.2 h F 80–92% pb 85±10% ur 85±10% | V 0.32±0.08 CL 6.1±1.3 Mwt 211.2 PSA 65.8 Å ² log P 1.27 | MILRINONE Phosphodiesterase III inhibitor, cardiotonic Metabolism: O-glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7 h F – pb 96% ur 6% | V – CL – Mwt 207.3 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P 2.57 | CICLOPIROX Antifungal Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 56% (dog) pb 58% ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 185.2 PSA 20.3 Å ² log P 1.82 | PIRFENIDONE Antifibrotic Metabolism: oxidation of methyl to carboxyl |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–13 h F 40–74% pb – ur 32% | V 2–3 CL – Mwt 202.2 PSA 52.0 Å ² $\log P$ –1.76 | AMEZINIUM Antihypertensive Metabolism: O-demethylation (to uncharged pyridazin-2-one), then hydroxylation and conjugation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.1±0.6 h F 90% pb 0% ur 20±6% | V/F 2.7±0.7 CL/F 24±6 Mwt 209.3 PSA 93.6 Å ² $\log P$ 1.62 | MINOXIDIL Potassium channel opener, antihypertensive, antialopecia agent Metabolism: O-sulfation, glucuronidation, 3- and 4-hydroxylation of piperidine, oxidative ring-opening of piperidine (to 4-carboxybutylamino), reductive N–O bond cleavage |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6 d F – pb – ur 1.4% | V – CL – Mwt 256.1 PSA 90.7 Å ² $\log P$ 2.08 | IRSOGLADINE Antilulcerative Metabolism: N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–12 h F – pb – ur – | V/F 0.4 CL/F 0.4 Mwt 422.4 PSA 138 Å ² $\log P$ –0.31 | RIOCIQUAT Guanylate cyclase stimulator for treatment of pulmonary hypertension |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.3–7.3 h F 43–50% pb 96–98% ur <1% | V 0.2 CL 1.4–2.8 Mwt 551.6 PSA 154 Å ² $\log P$ 1.15 | BOSENTAN Antihypertensive CYP2C9 and CYP3A4 inducer Metabolism: hydroxylation of <i>t</i> -Bu, O-demethylation |

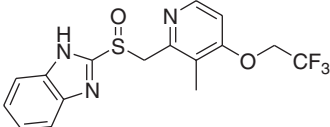
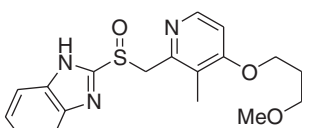
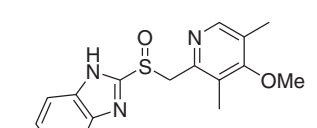
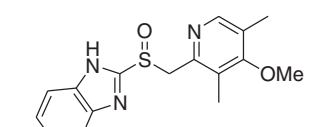
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13–18 h F 80%* pb 99%* ur – | V – CL – Mwt 588.3 PSA 137 Å ² log P 5.41 | MACITENTAN *dog Endothelin antagonist Metabolite: despropyl ($t_{1/2}$ 45–66 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–10 h F 50% pb 40% ur 49±10% | V 17±4 CL 9.7±1.9 Mwt 229.6 PSA 157 Å ² log P 0.93 | AMILORIDE Diuretic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7 h F 10%* pb Low ur – | V – CL – Mwt 241.3 PSA 132 Å ² log P –4.22 | SAPROPTERIN *animals Essential enzymatic cofactor; treatment of phenylketonuria Metabolites: dihydrobiopterin, biopterin |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.2±0.7 h F 54±12% pb 61±2% ur 52±10% | V 13.4±4.9 CL 63±20 Mwt 253.3 PSA 130 Å ² log P 1.16 | TRIAMTERENE Diuretic Metabolism: hydroxylation, glucuronidation, sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.1±1.2 h F – pb 90±1% ur – | V – CL 2.3±0.6 Mwt 349.3 PSA 202 Å ² log P –0.13 | HYDROXYTRIAMTERENE SULFATE Active metabolite of triamterene |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–6 h F 75–95% pb – ur <3%* | V 1.8* CL 10* Mwt 325.4 PSA 109 Å ² log P 1.97 | PIRITREXIM *dog Antineoplastic Metabolism: O-demethylation |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 12–20 h | V | 0.6–0.8 | TRIMETREXATE |
| | F | 44% | CL | 0.4–0.7 | Antineoplastic |
| | pb | 98% | Mwt | 369.4 | Metabolism: O-demethylation, then |
| | ur | <5% | PSA | 118 Å ² | glucuronidation, sulfation |
| | | | log P | 1.76 | |

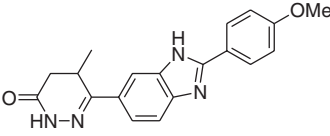
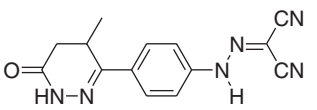
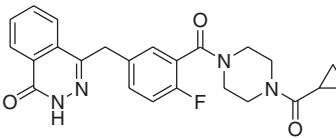
$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; AMPA, α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid receptor; bbb, blood–brain barrier; CNS, central nervous system; MAO, monoamine oxidase; NAD, nicotine–adenine–dinucleotide; PDE, phosphodiesterase.

Table 59.2 Proton pump inhibitors and related compounds. V in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|-------|---------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 0.9–2.1 h | V | 0.28–0.45 | LANSOPRAZOLE |
| | F | 81–91% | CL | 2.6–7.4 | Racemic, proton pump inhibitor, antiulcerative |
| | pb | 97–99% | Mwt | 369.4 | Metabolism by CYP3A4 and CYP2C19 to sulfone and 5-hydroxybenzimidazole |
| | ur | <2% | PSA | 87.1 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.58 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1–2 h | V | 0.22 | RABEPRAZOLE |
| | F | 52% | CL | 4.3–8.4 | Racemic, proton pump inhibitor, antiulcerative |
| | pb | 95–98% | Mwt | 359.4 | Metabolism: demethylation, oxidation to sulfone, reduction to thioether |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 96.3 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.10 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 0.7±0.5 h | V | 0.34±0.09 | OMEPRAZOLE |
| | F | 53±29% | CL | 7.5±2.7 | Racemic, proton pump inhibitor, antiulcerative |
| | pb | 95% | Mwt | 345.4 | Metabolism by CYP2C19 and CYP3A to 5-(hydroxymethyl), sulfone, O-desmethyl (5-hydroxybenzimidazole) |
| | ur | <0.1% | PSA | 96.3 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.36 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 5–8 h | V | – | TENATOPRAZOLE |
| | F | 77–88% | CL | – | Racemic, proton pump inhibitor, antiulcerative |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 346.4 | Metabolites: sulfide, sulfone |
| | ur | – | PSA | 104 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 346.4 | |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|--|---|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9–1.9 h F 67–89% pb 98% ur Negligible | V 0.17 CL 2.2 Mwt 383.4 PSA 106 Å ² log P 1.57 | PANTOPRAZOLE Racemic, proton pump inhibitor, antiulcerative Metabolism: oxidation to sulfone, reduction to thioether, demethylation followed by sulfation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4–9 h F – pb – ur – | V/F 1.7–2.5 CL/F 2.4–3.0 Mwt 366.4 PSA 92.0 Å ² log P 2.66 | ILAPRAZOLE Racemic, proton pump inhibitor, antiulcerative Metabolism: oxidation to sulfone, reduction to sulfide, hydroxylation of pyrrole |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.4 h F – pb – ur – | V 2–3 CL 19–24 Mwt 287.3 PSA 87.1 Å ² log P 1.14 | ISOMAZOLE Cardiotonic Metabolism: oxidation to sulfone, hydroxylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.2±0.4 h F 67±20% pb 92% ur <1% | V 0.54±0.09 CL 4.3±2.2 Mwt 307.4 PSA 37.6 Å ² log P 3.07 | ZOLPIDEM Sedative, hypnotic; CYP3A4 substrate Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation, then oxidation of CH ₂ OH to CO ₂ H |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 18–20 h F 13% (rat) pb 99% ur 0% | V 5 (rat) CL – Mwt 404.3 PSA 37.6 Å ² log P 5.49 | ALPIDEM Anxiolytic Metabolism: N-dealkylation, hydroxylation of CH ₂ Me; withdrawn in 1996 because of hepatotoxicity |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h F – pb 17% ur 0% | V 0.18–0.23 CL 1.9–2.3 Mwt 444.5 PSA 42.8 Å ² log P –1.44 | FAZADINIUM Muscle relaxant Metabolism: reductive N=N bond cleavage, phenyl 4-hydroxylation |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|-------|---------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 0.4–1.5 h | V | 2 | PIMOBENDAN |
| | F | 60–65% | CL | 14 | Cardiotonic |
| | pb | 98% | Mwt | 334.4 | Metabolism: N-glucuronidation, |
| | ur | – | PSA | 79.4 Å ² | O-demethylation, then |
| | | | log P | 2.08 | O-glucuronidation Active metabolite: O-desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 2 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 0.8–1.8 h | V | 0.28 | SIMENDAN |
| | F | 85±6% | CL | 4 | Calcium sensitizer for treatment of |
| | pb | 98% | Mwt | 280.3 | congestive heart failure; |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 113 Å ² | levosimendan has similar PK |
| | | | log P | 1.02 | Metabolism: reduction to 4-aminophenyl, then N-acetylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 5–10 h | V | 16–87 | OLAPARIB |
| | F | 100%* | CL | 0.3–2.4 | *rat, dog |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 434.5 | PARP inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | ur | – | PSA | 82.1 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 0.00 | |

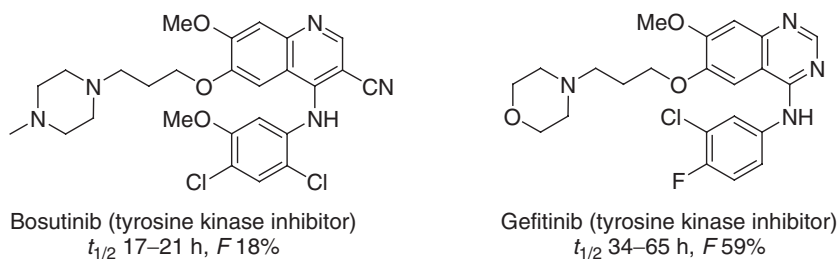
$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; PARP = poly(ADP-ribose)polymerase.

60

Quinolines

The quinoline substructure is not essential in all quinoline-containing drugs (Table 60.1). Substituted quinolines and quinazolines are, however, much easier to synthesize and metabolically less questionable than, for instance, substituted naphthalenes.

The most important quinoline-derived drugs are antimalarials, quinolone antibacterials, and the “tecan” antineoplastics. In these drugs, the quinoline substructure is an essential pharmacophore and cannot be replaced by other heteroarenes. In other drugs, however, the quinoline substructure just acts as lipophilic substituent or as scaffold and may be replaced by isoquinolines, quinazolines, or related heteroarenes. Thus, although most antineoplastic tyrosine kinase inhibitors are quinazolines, such as gefitinib, a quinoline scaffold can yield compounds with similar biological activity (e.g., bosutinib, Scheme 60.1).

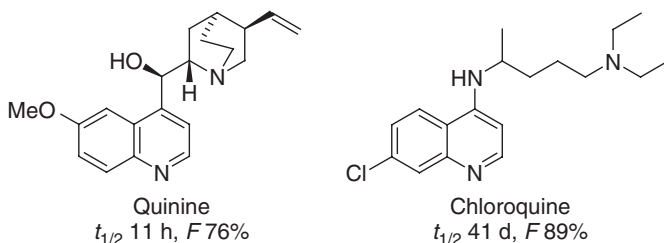


Scheme 60.1 Quinolines versus quinazolines.

Few drugs (mainly topical antifungals) contain unsubstituted naphthyl groups, which may hint at toxic metabolites. Quinolines, being less electron rich, are not readily metabolized to arene oxides and may, therefore, be safe bioisosteres of naphthyl groups.

The antimalarial properties of extracts from the chinchona bark were already known in the seventeenth century. The active principle, quinine, was isolated in 1820 by Pelletier and Caventou and used as antimalarial since then.

In the 1930s, cheaper, more readily accessible antimalarials were sought, and thousands of acridine and quinine analogs were prepared and tested. Interestingly, chloroquine (Scheme 60.2) was independently discovered by German (1934) and American chemists (1943) and became one of the most successful antimalarial drugs. Quinoline-derived antimalarials have high oral bioavailabilities and long half-lives and can be used for years without serious side effects.

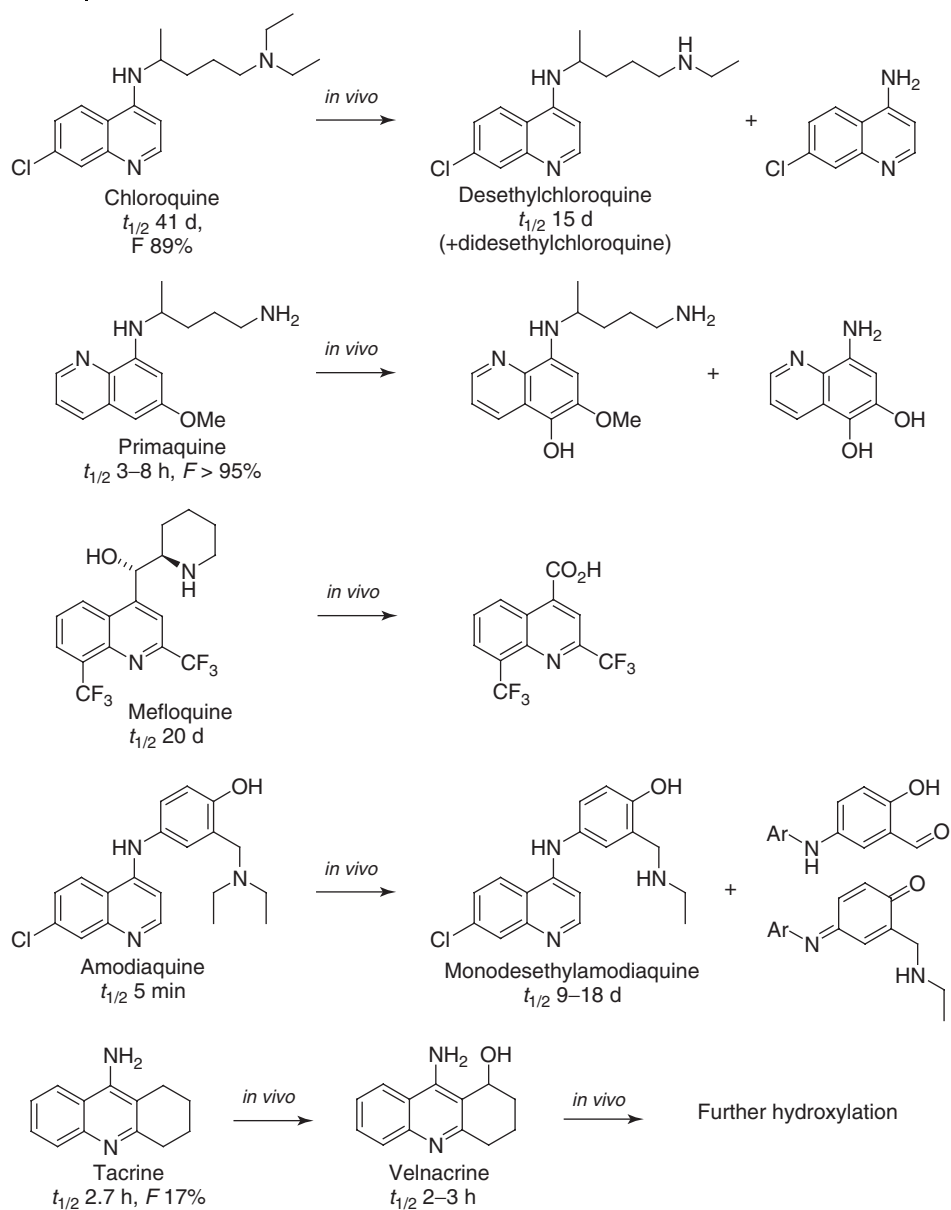


Scheme 60.2 Antimalarial quinolines.

Chloroquine is highly toxic to malaria schizonts, the pre-erythrocytic stage of the malaria parasite *Plasmodium falciparum*. The drug is assumed to act by inhibiting the parasites digestion of hemoglobin and by fragmenting and intercalating into its nucleic acids. Some malaria strains have become chloroquine resistant, and new drugs and treatment regimes are constantly being developed [1].

Quinolines are metabolically stable, and degradation *in vivo* takes place only at the substituents. Only quinolines substituted with electron-donating groups may undergo aromatic hydroxylation *in vivo*. The long half-life of chloroquine is mainly due to its extensive distribution into all kinds of tissue (volume of distribution: 100–1000 l kg⁻¹).

Illustrative examples of quinoline metabolism are sketched in Scheme 60.3.



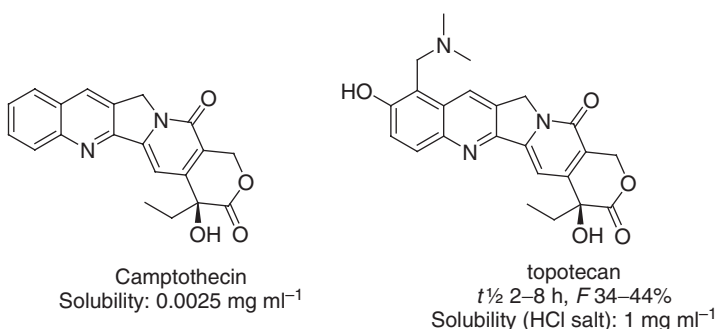
Scheme 60.3 Metabolism of quinolines.

60.1

Tecans

The antineoplastic properties of the tree *Camptotheca acuminata* were discovered 1958, and the active alkaloid camptothecin was isolated 1966 at the Research Triangle Institute (NC). This compound does not readily dissolve in water ($0.0025 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$), not even as sodium salt of the saponified lactone. Despite its new and promising biological activity (topoisomerase I inhibition [2]), the compound could not be advanced to phase II clinical trials because of poor solubility and excessive toxicity.

In the 1980s, the National Cancer Institute (USA) and SmithKline Beecham provided camptothecin to the University of Florida at Gainesville, where a team headed by Warren Ross developed a soluble, semisynthetic analog of camptothecin: topotecan (Scheme 60.4). The remaining development was carried out by SmithKline Beecham, and topotecan was finally launched in 1996 for the treatment of ovarian and small cell lung cancer. Since then, a number of additional camptothecin analogs were successfully developed [3] (Table 60.2).

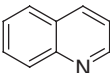
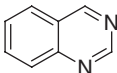
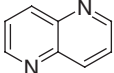
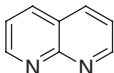
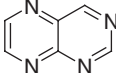


Scheme 60.4 Improvement of the solubility of camptothecin.

60.2

Quinazolines

Structurally closely related to quinolines are the quinazolines, the substructure of various important classes of drugs. These include α_1 -adrenergic antagonists (e.g., prazosin), tyrosine kinase inhibitors (e.g., erlotinib), and some antifolates. The quinazoline and quinoline substructures can often be interchanged, with rough retention of biological activity. Other heterocycles that may be used as an alternative to quinolines or quinazolines include pteridines and naphthyridines (Scheme 60.5). Quinazolines are, however, often easiest to prepare (from anthranilic acid derivatives).

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|--|
|  |  |  |  |  |
| Quinoline | Quinazoline | 1,5-Naphthyridine | 1,8-Naphthyridine | Pteridine |
| mp -15 °C | 48 °C | 73 °C | 98 °C | 138 °C |
| bp 237 °C | 241 °C | | | 265 °C |

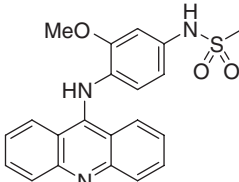
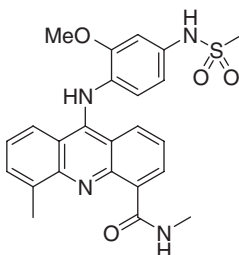
Scheme 60.5

α_1 -Adrenergic antagonists lead to a general vasodilation and are mainly used as antihypertensives and for the treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia (Table 60.3). Main metabolic pathways include O-demethylation of methoxy groups and N-dealkylation of amines.

References

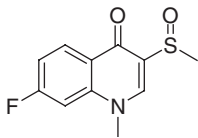
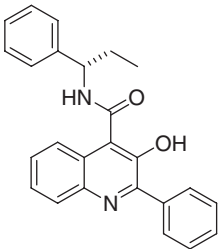
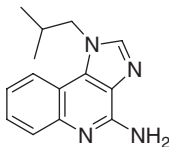
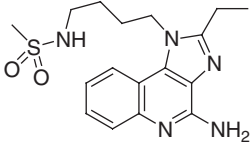
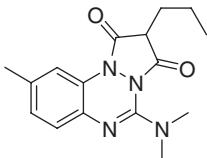
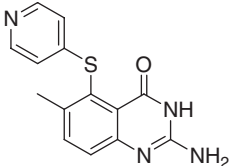
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2. Pommier, Y. (2009) DNA topoisomerase I inhibitors: chemistry, biology, and interfacial inhibition. *Chem. Rev.*, **109**, 2894–2902.
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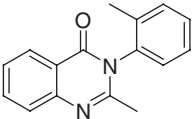
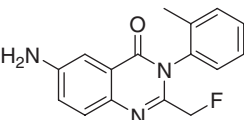
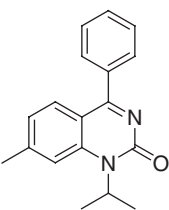
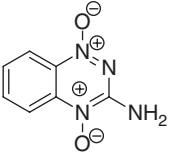
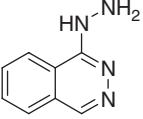
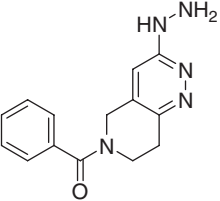
Table 60.1 Quinolines and related compounds. V in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|---------|-------|---------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 5–9 h | V | 1.7 | AMSACRINE |
| | F | Low | CL | 4.3 | Antineoplastic |
| | pb | 97% | Mwt | 393.5 | Metabolism: glucuronidation, |
| | ur | 20%(iv) | PSA | 88.7 Å ² | oxidation to quinoneimine |
| | | | log P | 3.32 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.4 h | V | 0.3 | ASULACRINE |
| | F | – | CL | 2.6 | Topoisomerase II inhibitor, |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 464.5 | antineoplastic |
| | ur | – | PSA | 118 Å ² | Metabolism: oxidative thiolation |
| | | | log P | 0.46 | with glutathione (meta to OCH ₃) |

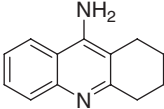
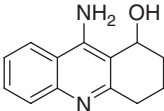
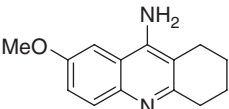
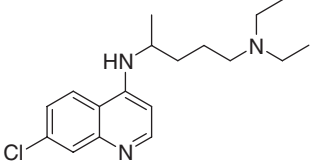
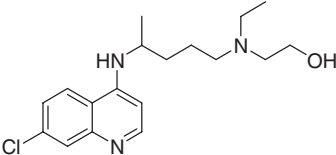
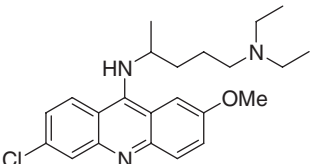
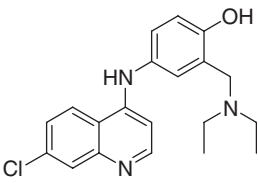
| | | | |
|--|--|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 16–17 d F 20% pb – ur 1% | V 4.6 CL 5–7 Mwt 518.1 PSA 73.8 Å ² log P 4.86 | PYRONARIDINE Antimalarial Metabolism: dehydrogenation of aminophenol to quinoneimine, O-demethylation, hydroxylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 70 d F 45–62% pb – ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 473.4 PSA 40.0 Å ² log P 7.46 | CLOFAZIMINE Tuberculostatic Metabolism: hydration, hydroxydechlorination, hydrolytic deamination, then glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 24 h F Reasonable pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 555.5 PSA 45.6 Å ² log P 7.71 | TMC-207 Tuberculostatic Metabolite: <i>N</i> -monodesmethyl |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 11–14 h F 11–32% pb – ur Traces | V – CL – Mwt 305.5 PSA 33.1 Å ² log P 4.17 | CLIOQUINOL Treatment of Alzheimer's disease, chelator (Zn, Cu), crosses bbb Metabolite: glucuronide; withdrawn in 1973 for causing neurotoxicity |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 11–14 h F 8% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 397.0 PSA 33.1 Å ² log P 4.10 | IDOQUINOL Antiamoebic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7 h F – pb – ur <1% | V – CL – Mwt 228.1 PSA 33.1 Å ² log P 3.51 | CHLORQUINALDOL Antibacterial Metabolite: glucuronide |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5–2.0 h F 72% pb – ur 1% | V 0.8 CL 8.2 Mwt 239.3 PSA 56.6 Å ² log P –1.43 | FLOSEQUINAN Vasodilator, antihypertensive Active metabolite: sulfone ($t_{1/2}$ 30–40 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 35–40 h F High pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 382.5 PSA 62.2 Å ² log P 5.80 | TALNETANT NK ₃ antagonist for treatment of schizophrenia |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5 h F 47% pb – ur <1% | V 5 CL 16 Mwt 240.3 PSA 56.7 Å ² log P 3.01 | IMIQUIMOD Antiviral, immunomodulator Metabolism: glucuronidation, aromatic and aliphatic hydroxylation, N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–14 h F 27% pb – ur – | V 4 CL 16 Mwt 361.5 PSA 111 Å ² log P 1.89 | 852 A Immunomodulator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–17 h F 83±19% pb 99.5% ur 63% | V 0.15 CL 0.14 Mwt 300.4 PSA 56.2 Å ² log P 1.78 | AZAPROPAZONE Antiinflammatory, metabolized by CYP2C9 Metabolite: 8-hydroxy |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5±0.9 h* F >95% pb – ur 9–35%* | V – CL 2–6 Mwt 284.3 PSA 106 Å ² log P 2.10 | NOLATREXED, AG-337 *iv Thymidylate synthase inhibitor, antineoplastic |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20–60 h F – pb 70–90% ur Negligible | V 6 CL 1.7 Mwt 250.3 PSA 32.7 Å ² log P 2.50 | METHAQUALONE Metabolites: 4'-hydroxy, <i>N</i> -oxide, 2'-hydroxymethyl, 3'-hydroxy, 6-hydroxy, 2-hydroxymethyl; withdrawn in 1984 for causing addiction |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.3 h F – pb – ur 4% | V – CL – Mwt 283.3 PSA 58.7 Å ² log P 0.85 | AFLOQUALONE Muscle relaxant, crosses bbb Metabolites: <i>N</i> -acetyl, <i>N</i> -acetyl-2'-hydroxymethyl, <i>N</i> -glucuronide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.6–1.3 h F 6–8% pb >98% ur Negligible | V 0.15 CL 9.5 Mwt 278.4 PSA 32.7 Å ² log P 3.16 | PROQUAZONE Antiinflammatory Metabolism: aromatic 3-hydroxylation, then conjugation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8 h (iv) F 75% pb 19% ur 14–53% | V 0.6 CL 8.9 Mwt 178.2 PSA 89.8 Å ² log P –0.29 | TIRAPAZAMINE Hypoxia-selective antineoplastic Metabolism: reductive cleavage of N–O bonds |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0±0.3 h F 10–40% pb 87% ur 1–15% | V 1.5±1.0 CL 56±13 Mwt 160.2 PSA 62.8 Å ² log P 0.95 | HYDRALAZINE Antihypertensive Metabolism: <i>N</i> -acetylation and cyclization, <i>N</i> -formylation and cyclization, aromatic hydroxylation, substitution of hydrazine by hydroxyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 h F 74–99% pb – ur – | V 2.2 CL 12–13 Mwt 269.3 PSA 83.1 Å ² log P –0.27 | ENDRALAZINE Antihypertensive Metabolism: hydrazone formation with pyruvate and α-ketoglutarate |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.7±0.9 h F 17±3% pb 55% ur <1% | V 5.9±3.0 CL 36±18 Mwt 198.3 PSA 38.9 Å ² $\log P$ 2.56 | TACRINE Acetylcholinesterase inhibitor, nootropic, crosses bbb Metabolism: 1-hydroxylation (to velnacrine, see below), 2-, 3-, 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7–2.4 h F – pb – ur 11–30% | V – CL – Mwt 214.3 PSA 59.1 Å ² $\log P$ 1.47 | VELNACRINE Metabolite of tacrine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±4 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 228.3 PSA 48.1 Å ² $\log P$ 2.45 | 7-METHOXYTACRINE Cholinergic, less hepatotoxic than tacrine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 41±14 d F 89±16% pb 61±9% ur 61±4% | V 115±61 CL 1.8±0.4 Mwt 319.9 PSA 28.2 Å ² $\log P$ 4.41 | CHLOROQUINE Antimalarial Metabolites: desethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 15±6 d), bisdesethyl, 4-amino-7-chloroquinoline |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 72 h F 44–85% pb 50–65% ur 16–52% | V 76–630 CL – Mwt 335.9 PSA 48.4 Å ² $\log P$ 3.53 | HYDROXYCHLOROQUINE Antimalarial Metabolites: desethyl, desethylchloroquine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–14 d F Low pb 80–90% ur – | V 45 CL 5.1 Mwt 400.0 PSA 37.4 Å ² $\log P$ 5.59 | QUINACRINE Antimalarial, crosses bbb Metabolism: N-deethylation, then oxidation of CH ₂ NH ₂ to CO ₂ H, O-demethylation, N-dealkylation (to 4-aminoacridine) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 min F – pb 90% ur 2% | V 17–34 CL – Mwt 355.9 PSA 48.4 Å ² $\log P$ 3.13 | AMODIAQUINE Antimalarial Metabolism: N-dealkylation, oxidation to benzaldehyde and quinoneimine Active metabolite: monodesethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 9–18 d); hepatotoxic, induces agranulocytosis |

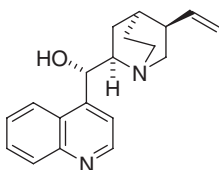
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|--|--|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4.6±1.1 h F 18–57% pb – ur 0.4% V 3.3 CL – Mwt 346.8 PSA 50.7 Å ² $\log P$ 3.80 | VATALANIB Antiangiogenic tyrosine kinase inhibitor Metabolism: pyridine N-oxidation, aromatic hydroxylation, hydroxylation of CH ₂ |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3–8 h F >95% pb – ur <1% V 3–8 CL 20 Mwt 259.4 PSA 60.2 Å ² $\log P$ 2.74 | PRIMAQUINE Antimalarial Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation (para to alkylamino), O-demethylation, N-dealkylation (to 5,6-dihydroxy-8-aminoquinoline) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 weeks F – pb – ur – V/F 24±5 CL 0.9±0.2 Mwt 463.5 PSA 78.6 Å ² $\log P$ 5.81 | TAFENOQUINE Antimalarial Metabolism: hydroxylation of alkyl side chain |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6.2±1.8 h F 80±15%* pb 87±3% ur 18±5% V 2.7±1.2 CL 4.7±1.8 Mwt 324.4 PSA 45.6 Å ² $\log P$ 2.82 | QUINIDINE *sulfate Antimalarial, antiarrhythmic, CYP3A4 substrate Metabolism: alkene dihydroxylation, oxidation of alcohol to ketone, N-oxidation of quinuclidine; active metabolite: 3-hydroxyquinidine ($t_{1/2}$ 12±3 h, pb 60±10%) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 11±2 h F 76±11% pb 93±3% ur 12% V 1.8±0.4 CL 1.9±0.5 Mwt 324.4 PSA 45.6 Å ² $\log P$ 2.82 | QUININE Antimalarial, muscle relaxant |

(continued overleaf)

COC1=CC=C2C(=C1)C(=CN2)C[C@H](O)[C@@H]3C[C@H](O)[C@H](C=C)N3

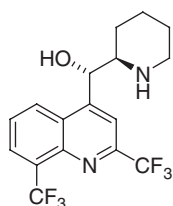
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|-------------|--------|---------|---------------------|
| $t_{1/2}^1$ | 11±4 h | V | 7±2 |
| F | 50–90% | CL | 12 |
| pb | 53% | Mwt | 340.4 |
| ur | – | PSA | 65.8 Å ² |
| | | log P | 2.01 |

**3-HYDROXYDIHYDRO-
QUINIDINE**
Antiarrhythmic



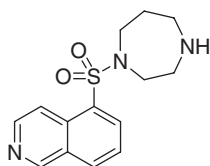
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|-----------|-----------------|---------|----------------------|
| $t^{1/2}$ | 2 ± 1 h (iv) | V | – |
| F | 44% (rat) | CL | 39 |
| pb | – | Mwt | 294.4 |
| ur | <10% (iv) | PSA | 36.4 \AA^2 |
| | | log P | 2.79 |

CINCHONINE
Antimalarial
Metabolism: similar to quinine



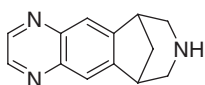
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|-------------|--------|-------|---------------------|
| $t_{1/2}^1$ | 20±4 d | V/F | 19±6 |
| F | — | CL/F | 0.43±0.14 |
| pb | 98.2% | Mwt | 378.3 |
| ur | <1% | PSA | 45.2 Å ² |
| | | log P | 2.20 |

MEFLOQUINE
Racemic, antimalarial, does not
cross bbb



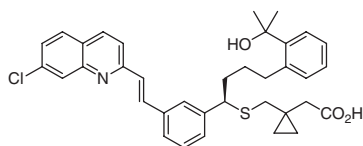
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|-----------|-------|---------|---------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 0.8 h | V | – |
| F | High | CL | – |
| pb | – | Mwt | 291.4 |
| ur | – | PSA | 70.7 Å ² |
| | | log P | 1.72 |

FASUDIL
Kinase inhibitor, vasodilator
Metabolism: hydroxylation to
isoquinolin-1-one ($t_{1/2}$ 5 h)



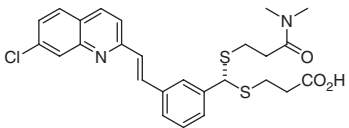
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|-----------|---------|---------|---------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 10–58 h | V | 6.4 |
| F | High | CL | – |
| pb | <20% | Mwt | 211.3 |
| ur | 92% | PSA | 37.8 Å ² |
| | | log P | 0.74 |

VARENICLINE
Nicotinic agonist for treatment of
nicotine addiction
Metabolism: glucuronidation,
N-formylation



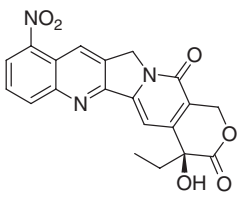
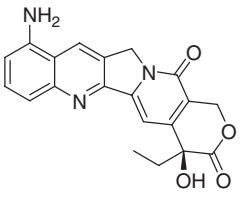
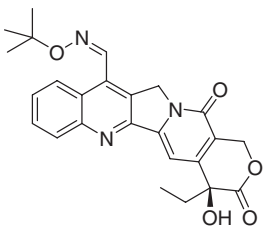
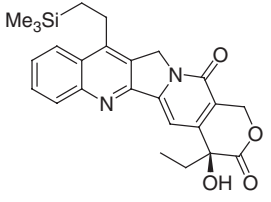
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|-----------|-----------|-------|---------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 2.7–5.5 h | V | 0.13–0.16 |
| F | 58–66% | CL | 0.59–0.72 |
| pb | >99% | Mwt | 586.2 |
| ur | <0.2% | PSA | 95.7 Å ² |
| | | log P | 7.80 |

MONTELUKAST
Antiasthmatic
Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation,
oxidation to sulfoxide, benzylic
hydroxylation (at CH₂), CH₃
hydroxylation

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-------|-------|--------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3–5 h | V | 0.11 | VERLUKAST |
| | F | 100% | CL | 0.68 | Leukotriene D ₄ antagonist |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 515.1 | Metabolism: oxidation to sulfoxide, |
| | ur | – | PSA | 121 Å ² | hydroxylation of NCH ₃ , then |
| | | | log P | 5.93 | N-demethylation |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier.

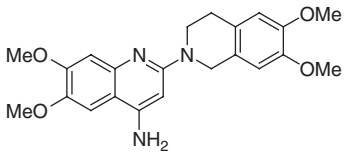
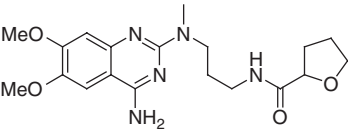
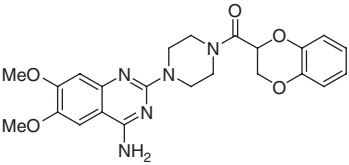
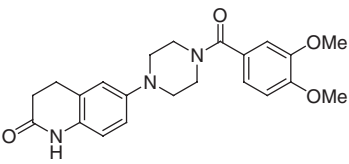
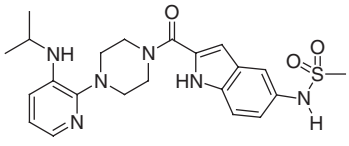
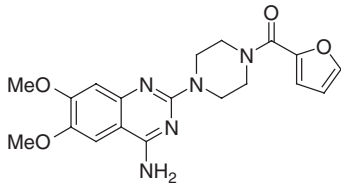
Table 60.2 Camptothecin analogs. V in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|------------|-------|---------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 15–18 h | V | 0.8 | RUBITECAN |
| | F | 1–5% (dog) | CL | 0.4 | *drug + metabolite |
| | pb | 97% | Mwt | 393.4 | Topoisomerase I inhibitor, |
| | ur | 10%* | PSA | 126 Å ² | antineoplastic, enantiomerically |
| | | | log P | 0.33 | pure |
| | | | | | Active metabolite: 9-aminocamptothecin |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 4–13 h | V | 2.2 | 9-AMINOCAMPTOTHECIN |
| | F | 49% | CL | 6.5 | Antineoplastic, metabolite of |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 363.4 | rubitecan |
| | ur | – | PSA | 106 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 0.75 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 77±37 h | V | – | GIMATECAN |
| | F | 40–80%* | CL | 0.15±0.10 | *rat, dog |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 447.5 | Topoisomerase inhibitor, |
| | ur | <10% | PSA | 101 Å ² | antineoplastic |
| | | | log P | 3.74 | Metabolism: hydroxylation of tBu, |
| | | | | | glucuronidation, sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 13±4 h | V | 3.6±1.1 | KARENITECIN |
| | F | >40% | CL | 7.1±4.3 | Antineoplastic |
| | pb | 99% | Mwt | 448.6 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 79.7 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 4.46 | |

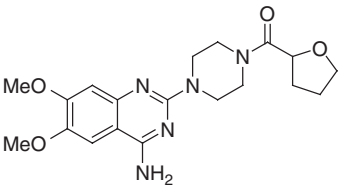
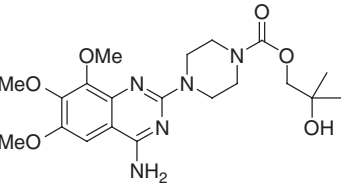
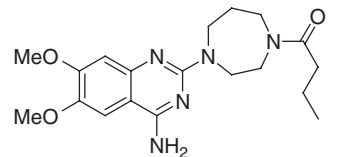
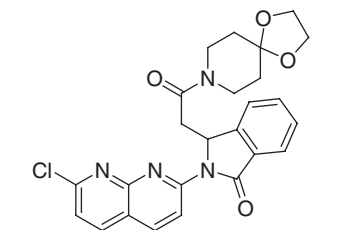
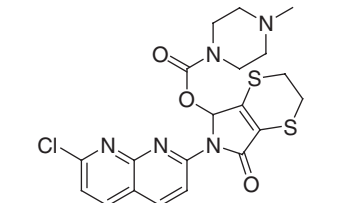
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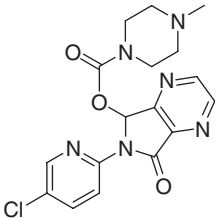
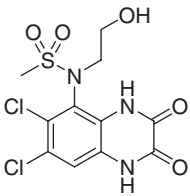
| | | |
|--|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7–8.4 h F 34–44% pb 6.6–31% ur 20–42% V 0.4–2.1 CL 2.7–30 Mwt 421.5 PSA 103 Å ² log P 1.39 | TOPOTECAN Antineoplastic Metabolism: lactone hydrolysis, N-demethylation, phenol glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–17 h* F <6% pb – ur 15% V 0.1–0.4 CL 0.1–1.3 Mwt 518.6 PSA 105 Å ² log P 0.97 | LURTOTECAN *iv Antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6–21 h F 12–21%* pb 65% ur 10–26% V 2.6–6.3 CL 5–18 Mwt 586.7 PSA 113 Å ² log P 3.73 | IRINOTECAN *mice Antineoplastic Metabolism: reversible hydrolysis of lactone, oxidative ring-opening of terminal piperidine to aminopentanoic acid and 4-aminopiperidine, hydrolysis of carbamate to phenol (SN-38; $t_{1/2}$ 8–22 h, pb 95%), then phenol glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7–8 h* F – pb – ur 1–16%* V 0.44 CL 0.96 Mwt 435.5 PSA 106 Å ² log P 2.13 | EXATECAN *iv Antineoplastic Metabolism: lactone hydrolysis, benzylic hydroxylation (at CH ₃ and at CH ₂ CH ₂) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h F 72–95% pb – ur 9% V 1.3–1.8 CL 6–11 Mwt 398.4 PSA 79.7 Å ² log P 2.01 | DIFLOMOTECAN Antineoplastic Metabolism: reversible lactone hydrolysis |

Table 60.3 Quinazolines and related compounds. *V* in l kg⁻¹; *CL* in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; *Mwt* in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|---|-------------------------|-----------|--------------|---------------------|---|
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 3–4 h | <i>V</i> | 6.3 | ABANOQUIL α ₁ -Adrenergic antagonist |
| | <i>F</i> | – | <i>CL</i> | 14 | |
| | <i>pb</i> | – | <i>Mwt</i> | 395.5 | |
| | <i>ur</i> | – | <i>PSA</i> | 79.1 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | 3.32 | |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 5–9 h | <i>V</i> | 1.5–3.2 | ALFUZOSIN α ₁ -Adrenergic antagonist, antihypertensive Metabolism: O-demethylation, N-dealkylation, oxidation |
| | <i>F</i> | 49–100% | <i>CL</i> | 5.9 | |
| | <i>pb</i> | 82–90% | <i>Mwt</i> | 389.5 | |
| | <i>ur</i> | 11% | <i>PSA</i> | 112 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | –1.00 | |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 11±2 h | <i>V</i> | 1.5±0.3 | DOXAZOSIN α ₁ -Adrenergic antagonist, antihypertensive Metabolism: demethylation, aromatic hydroxylation of benzodioxan |
| | <i>F</i> | 63±14% | <i>CL</i> | 1.7±0.4 | |
| | <i>pb</i> | 98–99% | <i>Mwt</i> | 451.5 | |
| | <i>ur</i> | 0.6–1.2% | <i>PSA</i> | 112 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | 2.85 | |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 37–46 h | <i>V</i> | – | VESNARINONE Cardiotonic Metabolism: oxidation to reactive quinone imine, dehydrogenation of piperazine; causes agranulocytosis |
| | <i>F</i> | – | <i>CL</i> | 0.08 | |
| | <i>pb</i> | 80% | <i>Mwt</i> | 395.5 | |
| | <i>ur</i> | 19–26% | <i>PSA</i> | 71.1 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | 1.71 | |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 2–11 h | <i>V</i> | 0.8–1.0 | DELAVIRDINE Antiviral (reverse transcriptase inhibitor) Metabolism: N-dealkylation, pyridine hydroxylation |
| | <i>F</i> | >51% | <i>CL</i> | – | |
| | <i>pb</i> | 98% | <i>Mwt</i> | 456.6 | |
| | <i>ur</i> | <5% | <i>PSA</i> | 119 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | –1.23 | |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 2.9±0.8 h | <i>V</i> | 0.60±0.13 | PRAZOSIN α ₁ -Adrenergic antagonist, antihypertensive Metabolism: demethylation, N-dealkylation, glucuronidation, amide hydrolysis, hydroxylation of piperazine, then elimination of water, oxidative degradation of piperazine, reductive furan opening, then oxidation to 2-oxoglutarate |
| | <i>F</i> | 68±17% | <i>CL</i> | 3.0±0.3 | |
| | <i>pb</i> | 95±1% | <i>Mwt</i> | 383.4 | |
| | <i>ur</i> | <1% | <i>PSA</i> | 107 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | 2.14 | |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12±3 h <i>F</i> 90% <i>pb</i> 92±2% <i>ur</i> 12±3% | <i>V</i> 0.80±0.18 <i>CL</i> 1.1±0.2 <i>Mwt</i> 387.4 <i>PSA</i> 103 Å ² <i>log P</i> -0.96 | TERAZOSIN α_1 -Adrenergic antagonist, antihypertensive Metabolism: demethylation, amide hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 h <i>F</i> 63% <i>pb</i> - <i>ur</i> - | <i>V</i> 0.18 <i>CL</i> 1.0 <i>Mwt</i> 435.5 <i>PSA</i> 133 Å ² <i>log P</i> 1.13 | TRIMAZOSIN Antihypertensive Metabolism: hydroxylation of <i>gem</i> -dimethyl to 1-hydroxytrimazosin ($t_{1/2}$ 1.6±0.5 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–12 h <i>F</i> 45% <i>pb</i> 94–97% <i>ur</i> 1% | <i>V</i> 0.72 <i>CL</i> 4.8 <i>Mwt</i> 373.5 <i>PSA</i> 93.8 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.27 | BUNAZOSIN α_1 -Adrenergic antagonist Metabolism: N-glucuronidation, O-demethylation, then O-glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10.5 h <i>F</i> - <i>pb</i> 95% <i>ur</i> 0% | <i>V</i> - <i>CL</i> - <i>Mwt</i> 478.9 <i>PSA</i> 84.9 Å ² <i>log P</i> 0.52 | PAZINACLONE Sedative, anxiolytic Metabolism: acetal hydrolysis, then reduction of ketone to alcohol ($t_{1/2}$ 7.6 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h <i>F</i> - <i>pb</i> - <i>ur</i> - | <i>V</i> - <i>CL</i> - <i>Mwt</i> 478.0 <i>PSA</i> 129 Å ² <i>log P</i> 3.81 | SURICLONE Anxiolytic Metabolism: oxidation to <i>N</i> -oxide, <i>S</i> -oxide, <i>N</i> -demethylation |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-------------|-------|----------------------|--------------------------------|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 4 ± 2 h | V | 1.4–1.6 | ZOPICLONE |
| | F | 80% | CL | 3.6 | Sedative, hypnotic |
| | pb | 45% | Mwt | 388.8 | Metabolism: N-demethylation, |
| | ur | 5% | PSA | 91.8 \AA^2 | N-oxidation of tertiary amine, |
| | | | log P | 2.71 | hydrolysis of carbamate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.4 h* | V | 0.8 | UK-240455 |
| | F | 17% | CL | 6.0 | *iv |
| | pb | 87% | Mwt | 368.2 | NMDA glycine site antagonist, |
| | ur | 58–68%* | PSA | 124 \AA^2 | crosses bbb |
| | | | log P | –1.11 | Metabolism: glucuronidation |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; NMDA, N-methyl d-aspartic acid.

61

Nucleoside Analogs

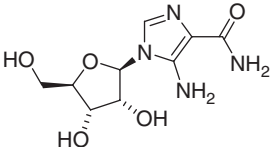
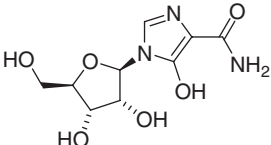
Chemically modified nucleosides can disrupt the biosynthesis of RNA and DNA by inhibiting essential enzymes, by blocking the elongation of nucleic acids, or by rendering the resulting RNAs/DNAs nonfunctional. Nucleoside analogs (“antimetabolites”) can thus be used to interfere with the replication of cells (e.g., as antineoplastics) and viruses [1] (Tables 61.1 and 61.2). Many of these compounds are mutagenic.

Because of their low lipophilicity, the oral bioavailability of unnatural carbohydrates depends on the availability of suitable active transport mechanisms and can vary strongly.

Reference

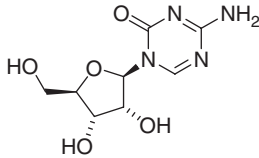
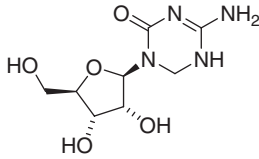
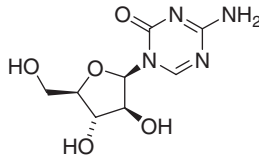
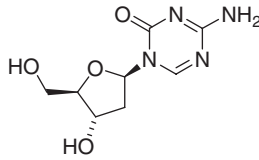
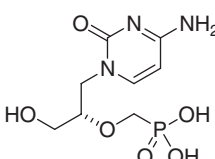
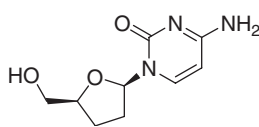
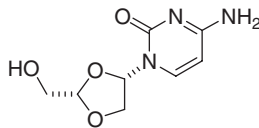
- (a) De Clercq, E. (2010) Highlights in the discovery of antiviral drugs: a personal retrospective. *J. Med. Chem.*, **53**, 1438–1450; (b) Parker, W.B. (2009) Enzymology of purine and pyrimidine antimetabolites used in the treatment of cancer. *Chem. Rev.*, **109**, 2880–2893.

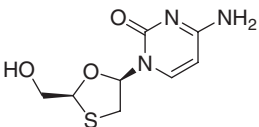
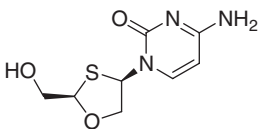
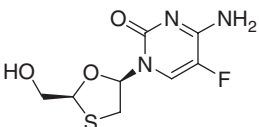
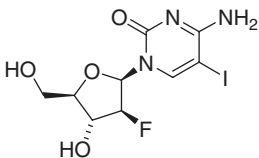
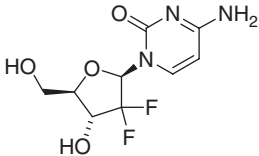
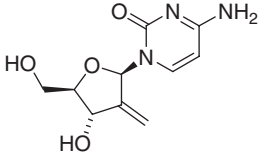
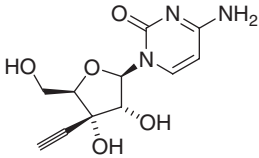
Table 61.1 Nucleoside analogs with monocyclic heteroarenes. V in l kg^{−1}; CL in ml min^{−1} kg^{−1}; Mwt in g mol^{−1}.

| | | | | | |
|---|-------------------------|---------|--------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | Short | V | – | ACADESINE |
| | <i>F</i> | <5% | CL | 37 | Cardioprotectant |
| | pb | 1% | Mwt | 258.2 | Metabolites: uric acid, |
| | ur | – | PSA | 157 Å ² | hypoxanthine |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | −2.29 | |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 3 h | V | 0.8 | MIZORIBINE |
| | <i>F</i> | 12–81% | CL | 2.2–4.8 | Immunosuppressant |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 259.2 | Metabolism: phosphorylation |
| | ur | 50–100% | PSA | 151 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | −0.79 | |

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.1–0.5 h* F – pb – ur <12% V – CL – Mwt 259.2 PSA 162 Å ² $\log P$ –1.75 | PYRAZOFURIN *iv Antiviral |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6–8 h (iv) F – pb – ur 50–85% (iv) V 1.1 CL 2.4 Mwt 260.3 PSA 154 Å ² $\log P$ –0.78 | TIAZOFURIN Antineoplastic, crosses bbb Metabolism: phosphorylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h* F 45–65% pb 0% ur 35±8% V 14 CL 5.2 Mwt 244.2 PSA 144 Å ² $\log P$ –1.85 | RIBAVIRIN *terminal phase: 18–36 h Antiviral Metabolism: phosphorylation, amination and amide hydrolysis |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 28–76 h F 66% pb 7% ur 1–4% V 19* CL 2.7 Mwt 243.2 PSA 151 Å ² $\log P$ –1.72 | VIRAMIDINE *monkey Prodrug of ribavirin (see above) Metabolism: hydrolysis of amination to free triazole and amidine to amide and CO ₂ H |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3.5 h (iv)* F 10% pb – ur 21%* V 0.7* CL 2.6* Mwt 244.2 PSA 144 Å ² $\log P$ –2.26 | LEVOVIRIN *monkey Antiviral (hepatitis C) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h (iv)* F <1%* pb 57% ur – V 0.4–0.7* CL 4–11* Mwt 228.2 PSA 103 Å ² $\log P$ –0.83 | ZEBULARINE *monkey DNA methylation inhibitor, antineoplastic |

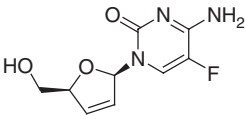
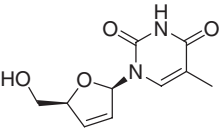
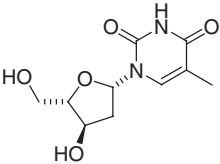
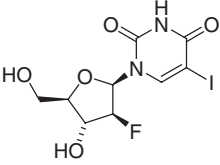
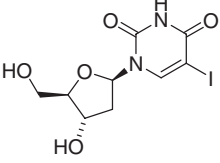
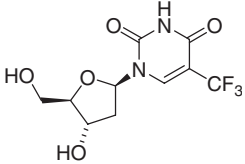
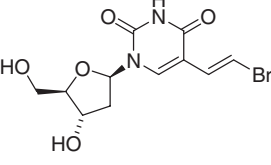
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–4 h (sc) F 18% pb – ur – | V 1.2 ± 0.4 CL 43 ± 13 Mwt 244.2 PSA 141 \AA^2 log P –2.19 | AZACYTIDINE Antineoplastic for sc administration Metabolism: phosphorylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h (iv) F – pb – ur <20% (iv) | V – CL – Mwt 246.2 PSA 141 \AA^2 log P –2.20 | DIHYDROAZACYTIDINE Antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F – pb – ur – | V 0.6^* CL 18 Mwt 244.2 PSA 141 \AA^2 log P –2.19 | FAZARABINE, ARABINOSYL-5-AZACYTIDINE *monkey Antineoplastic, iv administration Metabolism: phosphorylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.6 h (iv) F Low pb 0% ur – | V $0.2\text{--}4.6$ CL 130 Mwt 228.2 PSA 121 \AA^2 log P –1.87 | DECITABINE Antineoplastic, crosses bbb; Metabolism: deamination, phosphorylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F <5% pb 0–6% ur 80–100%* | V 0.49 CL 2.5 Mwt 279.2 PSA 155 \AA^2 log P –1.47 | CIDOFOVIR *iv Antiviral Metabolism: phosphorylation; prodrug: CMX001 (hexadecyloxypropyl phosphonate; $t_{1/2}$ 1 h (monkey)) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 ± 1 h F $88 \pm 17\%$ pb <4% ur $65 \pm 17\%$ | V 0.53 ± 0.13 CL 4.1 ± 1.2 Mwt 211.2 PSA 88.2 \AA^2 log P –1.36 | ZALCITABINE Antiviral Metabolism: phosphorylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11 ± 2 h F Low pb – ur 60% (iv) | V 1.0 ± 0.7 CL 2.5 ± 1.0 Mwt 213.2 PSA 97.4 \AA^2 log P –0.78 | TROXACITABINE, BCH-4556 Antineoplastic Metabolism: phosphorylation |

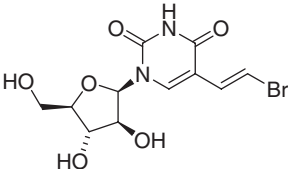
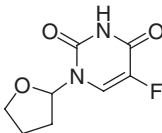
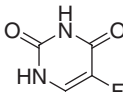
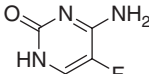
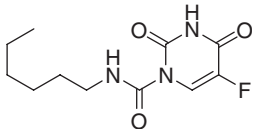
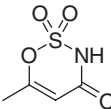
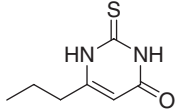
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 h F 86±16% pb 16–36% ur 55–85% | V 1.3 CL 4.8 Mwt 229.3 PSA 113 Å ² $\log P$ -0.71 | LAMIVUDINE Antiviral Metabolite: <i>trans</i> -sulfoxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F 65–80% pb <4% ur 65–80% | V 1 CL – Mwt 229.3 PSA 113 Å ² $\log P$ -1.35 | APRICITABINE Nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor, antiviral (HIV) Metabolite: triphosphate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–18 h F 75–93% pb <4% ur 75% | V 1.4±0.3 CL 4.7±1.5 Mwt 247.3 PSA 113 Å ² $\log P$ -0.41 | EMTRICITABINE Antiviral Metabolite: 3'-sulfoxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3 h (iv) F High pb – ur 12% (iv) | V – CL – Mwt 371.1 PSA 108 Å ² $\log P$ -1.54 | FIACITABINE Antiviral Metabolism: replacement of NH ₂ by OH (to fialuridine) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.2–0.4 h F 10% pb 0% ur <10% | V 0.22–0.74 CL 17–54 Mwt 263.2 PSA 108 Å ² $\log P$ -2.22 | GEMCITABINE Antineoplastic Metabolites: triphosphate and difluorodeoxyuridine ($t_{1/2}$ 89 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–6 h F 10–80% pb – ur 30–50% | V 1.0–1.5 CL 4.1–6.2 Mwt 239.2 PSA 108 Å ² $\log P$ -1.12 | 2-DEOXY-2-METHYLENECYTIDINE, DMDC Antineoplastic Metabolites: triphosphate and deoxymethylenauridine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±3 h* F – pb Low ur 62–71%* | V 1.4* CL 1.7±0.2* Mwt 267.2 PSA 129 Å ² $\log P$ -2.57 | 3'-C-ETHINYLCYTIDINE, TAS-106 *iv Antineoplastic |

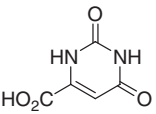
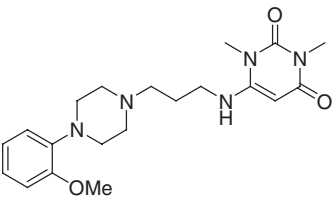
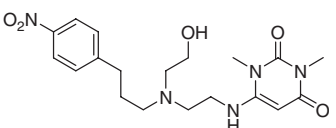
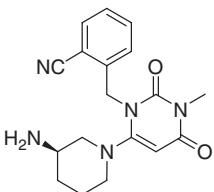
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.6±0.6 h F 20% pb 13% ur 11±8% | V 3.0±1.9 CL 13±4 Mwt 243.2 PSA 129 Å ² $\log P$ -1.81 | CYTARABINE Antineoplastic Metabolism: phosphorylation to triphosphate; 80–100% of the latter is excreted in urine |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5.3 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 0.32 CL 0.9 Mwt 565.8 PSA 132 Å ² $\log P$ 8.62 | ENOCITABINE Antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 490.6 PSA 135 Å ² $\log P$ 5.67 | SAPACITABINE Prodrug of CNDAC Values: CNDAC on oral administration of prodrug |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5–0.9 h F 100% pb 54% ur 3% | V – CL 64 Mwt 359.4 PSA 121 Å ² $\log P$ 0.97 | CAPECITABINE Prodrug of 5-fluorouracil |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1±0.2 h F 63±13% pb <25% ur 18±5% | V 1.4±0.4 CL 26±6 Mwt 281.3 PSA 134.1 Å ² $\log P$ -0.09 | ZIDOVUDINE Antiviral Metabolism: glucuronidation, intracellular phosphorylation, reduction of azide to NH ₂ , causes granulocytopenia and anemia |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4–5 h F High pb <10% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 244.2 PSA 78.9 Å ² $\log P$ -0.20 | ALOVUDINE Antiviral |

| | | | |
|---|--|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20–100 h F 41% pb <1% ur 32% | V/F 23–40 CL/ F 6–12 Mwt 227.2 PSA 88.2 Å ² log P –1.28 | ELVUCITABINE Antiviral (HIV) Metabolism: phosphorylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3 h F 86±18% pb 0% ur 34±5% | V 0.7–1.0 CL 8.2 Mwt 224.2 PSA 78.9 Å ² log P –0.65 | STAVUDINE Antiviral Metabolism: hydroxylation, glucuronidation, epoxidation followed by reaction with nucleophiles |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 40–49 h F 52% pb 3% ur 42% | V 8±4 CL 3 Mwt 242.2 PSA 99.1 Å ² log P –0.84 | TELBIVUDINE Antiviral No metabolites |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 372.1 PSA 99.1 Å ² log P 0.12 | FIALURIDINE Antiviral; discontinued because of excessive toxicity |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 354.1 PSA 99.1 Å ² log P –0.59 | IDOXURIDINE Antiviral Metabolites: idoxuracil, uracil |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18 min (iv) F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 296.2 PSA 99.1 Å ² log P –0.02 | TRIFLURIDINE, TRIFLUOROTHYMININE Antiviral; topical application only; too mutagenic for systemic application Metabolite: 5-carboxyuracil |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16 h F 30% pb >95% ur <1% | V 1.2 CL 3.7 Mwt 333.1 PSA 99.1 Å ² log P 0.29 | BRIVUDINE Antiviral Inactive metabolites: bromovinyluracil, uracilacetic acid |

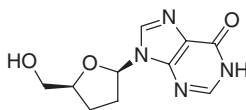
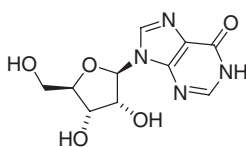
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 h F 50–70% pb 98% ur 74% | V – CL – Mwt 349.1 PSA 119 Å ² log P –0.03 | SORIVUDINE Antiviral Metabolism: hydrolysis of aminoriboside |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–11 h F High pb 52% ur 20% | V – CL – Mwt 200.2 PSA 58.6 Å ² log P –0.60 | TEGAFUR Antineoplastic Metabolism: hydrolysis of acetal to 5-fluorouracil |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±4 min F 28% pb 10±2% ur <5% | V 0.25±0.12 CL 16±7 Mwt 130.1 PSA 58.2 Å ² log P –0.65 | 5-FLUOROURACIL Antineoplastic, metabolite of flucytosine Metabolite: 5,6-dihydro |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.2±0.3 h F 84±6% pb 4% ur >90% | V 0.7–0.8 CL – Mwt 129.1 PSA 67.5 Å ² log P –1.40 | FLUCYTOSINE Antifungal Metabolites: 6-hydroxy, glucuronide, α-fluoro-β-alanine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 257.3 PSA 78.5 Å ² log P 2.54 | CARMOFUR Prodrug of 5-fluorouracil |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5 h F 100% pb – ur >99% | V – CL – Mwt 163.2 PSA 80.8 Å ² log P –0.88 | ACESULFAME Artificial sweetener |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 75% pb 80% ur <10% | V 0.3–0.4 CL 3.9 Mwt 170.2 PSA 73.2 Å ² log P 1.15 | PROPYLTHIOURACIL Antihyperthyroid, anabolic Metabolism: glucuronidation, sulfation, S-methylation |

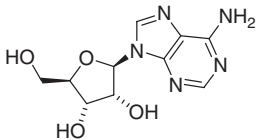
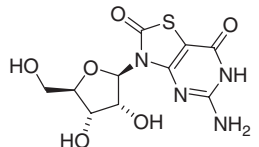
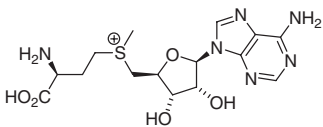
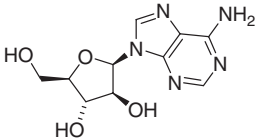
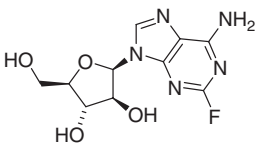
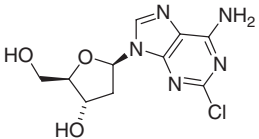
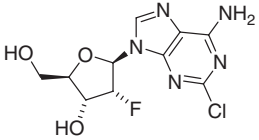
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h F <10% pb 0% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 156.1 PSA 95.5 Å ² log P –0.84 | OROTIC ACID Uricosuric |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 h F 63–80% pb 75–80% ur 10–15% | V 0.4–0.8 CL 1.8–3.8 Mwt 387.5 PSA 68.4 Å ² log P 1.64 | URAPIDIL α_1 -Adrenergic antagonist, antihypertensive Metabolites: 4-hydroxyaryl ($t_{1/2}$ 6–10 h), <i>N</i> -desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 10–16 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0–1.5 h F – pb – ur 30% | V 0.14 CL – Mwt 405.5 PSA 122 Å ² log P 2.48 | NIFEKALANT Potassium channel blocker, antiarrhythmic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 21±9 h F 72–88%* pb – ur 60–71% | V 4.6±1.2 CL 2.7±0.7 Mwt 339.4 PSA 93.7 Å ² log P 1.84 | ALOGLIPTIN *monkey DPPIV inhibitor, antidiabetic Metabolites: <i>N</i> -desmethyl, <i>N</i> -acetyl |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier; CNDAC, 1-(2-C-cyano-2-deoxy- β -D-arabinopentofuranosyl)cytosine; DPPIV, dipeptidylpeptidase IV.

Table 61.2 Nucleoside analogs with bicyclic heteroarenes. V in l kg^{–1}; CL in ml min^{–1} kg^{–1}; Mwt in g mol^{–1}.

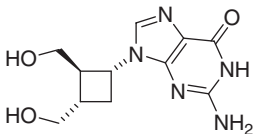
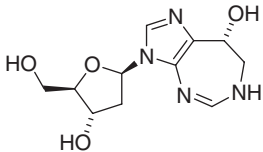
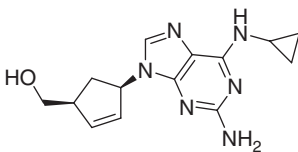
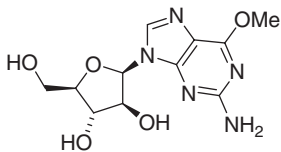
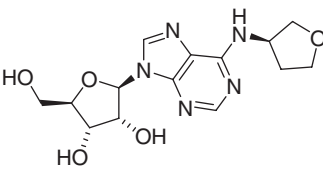
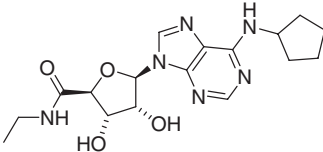
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.4±0.3 h F 38±15% pb <5% ur 36±9% | V 1.0±0.2 CL 16±7 Mwt 236.2 PSA 83.8 Å ² log P –1.33 | DIDANOSINE Antiviral Metabolite: hypoxanthine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15±2 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 268.2 PSA 129 Å ² log P –1.97 | INOSINE Natural nucleoside |

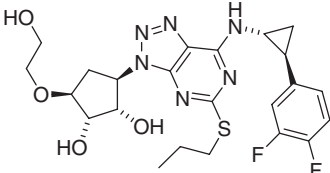
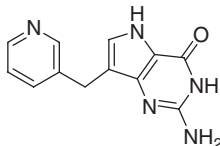
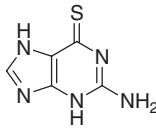
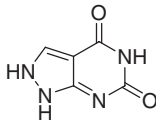
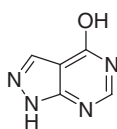
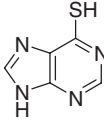
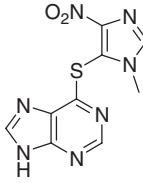
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ <2 min (iv) F – pb 0% ur <5% | V – CL – Mwt 267.2 PSA 140 Å ² log P –0.76 | ADENOSINE Natural nucleoside |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F Low pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 316.3 PSA 183 Å ² log P –2.17 | ISATORIBINE Immunomodulator, antiviral (hepatitis) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.4 h F – pb 5% ur 34–40% | V 0.42 CL 3.4 Mwt 399.5 PSA 182.6 Å ² log P –5.02 | S-ADENOSYL-L-METHIONINE Natural electrophilic methylating agent |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h F – pb 24–38% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 267.2 PSA 140 Å ² log P –0.76 | VIDARABINE Antiviral, crosses bbb, active metabolite: desamino (arabinosyl hypoxanthine, $t_{1/2}$ 3.5 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–34 h* F 55–75% pb 19–29% ur 27–60% | V 0.3–2.7 CL 1.1–6.3 Mwt 285.2 PSA 140 Å ² log P –0.80 | FLUDARABINE *iv; antineoplastic; prodrug: fludarabine phosphate (F 55–75%, fludarabine on oral administration of prodrug) Metabolism: O-phosphorylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–16 h F 37–51% pb 15–21% ur 30–50%* | V 1.3–9.2 CL 11–22 Mwt 285.7 PSA 119 Å ² log P –0.98 | CLADRIBINE *iv Antineoplastic, crosses bbb Metabolite: 2-chloroadenine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h* F Low** pb 47% ur 49–60%* | V 4.5 CL 1.6 Mwt 303.7 PSA 119 Å ² log P 0.45 | CLOFARABINE *iv; **rat: 50% Antineoplastic Metabolism: O-glucuronidation, O-sulfation, O-phosphorylation, amination hydrolysis, replacement of NH ₂ by OH, oxidation of CH ₂ OH to CO ₂ H |

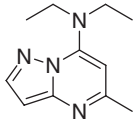
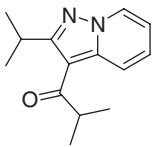
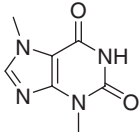
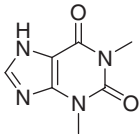
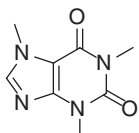
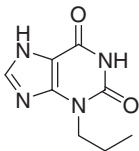
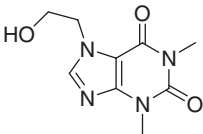
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h* F – pb – ur 19–77%* | V 1.3 CL 10 Mwt 390.4 PSA 177 Å ² $\log P$ –3.09 | REGADENOSON *iv Adenosine A _{2A} agonist, vasodilator |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 12–20 h F 40–50% pb – ur 40–70% (iv) | V 1–2 CL 1–2 Mwt 266.3 PSA 130 Å ² $\log P$ –3.82 | FORODESINE Antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 267.2 PSA 135 Å ² $\log P$ –2.01 | 2'-DEOXYGUANOSINE Natural nucleoside |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4.3±1.6 h F 3% pb 1–2% ur 73±31% | V 1.1±0.3 CL 4.6±1.8 Mwt 255.2 PSA 135 Å ² $\log P$ –1.61 | GANCICLOVIR Antiviral Metabolism: phosphorylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.4±0.7 h F 15±5% pb 15±4% ur 75±10% | V 0.7±0.2 CL 3.4 Mwt 225.2 PSA 110 Å ² $\log P$ –1.76 | ACYCLOVIR Antiviral; prodrug: ester with valine (valacyclovir); F (acyclovir on oral administration of valacyclovir) 54% Metabolism: 2-hydroxylation of imidazole, oxidation to (carboxymethoxymethyl) guanine, phosphorylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 128–149 h F 70% pb 13% ur 75% | V 1* CL 9 Mwt 277.3 PSA 121 Å ² $\log P$ –0.96 | ENTECAVIR *monkey Antiviral Metabolites: phosphoryl ($t_{1/2}$ 15 h), glucuronide |

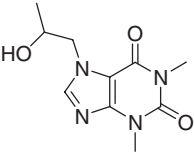
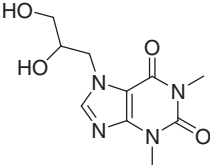
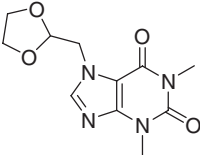
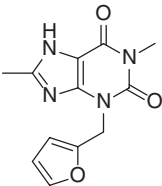
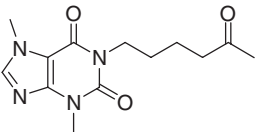
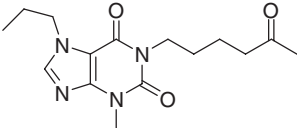
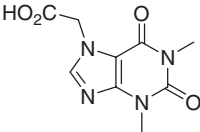
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10 h F 30–40% pb Low ur – | V – CL 11 Mwt 265.3 PSA 121 Å ² log P –1.24 | LOBUCAVIR Antiviral |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–10 h (iv) F Low pb 4% ur 96% (iv) | V 0.6 CL 2.8 Mwt 268.3 PSA 112 Å ² log P –2.24 | PENTOSTATIN Antineoplastic Crosses bbb |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5±0.6 h F 83% pb 50% ur 1.2% | V 0.84 CL 13 Mwt 286.3 PSA 97.0 Å ² log P 0.72 | ABACAVIR Antiviral Metabolism: glucuronidation, oxidation of alcohol to carboxylic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5 h (iv) F <10% pb 20% ur – | V 4.9 CL 81 Mwt 297.3 PSA 149 Å ² log P –0.26 | NELARABINE Prodrug for arabinofuranosylguanine ($t_{1/2}$ 2–6 h) Metabolism: O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 337.3 PSA 135 Å ² log P –1.38 | TECADENOSON Adenosine A ₁ agonist, antiarrhythmic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 376.4 PSA 134 Å ² log P 2.29 | SELODENOSON, DTI-0009 Adenosine A ₁ agonist |

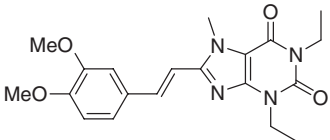
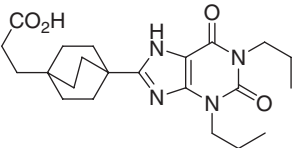
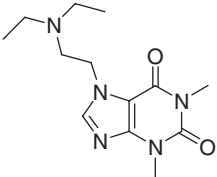
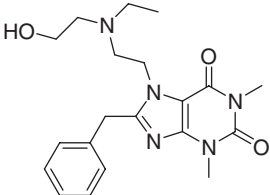
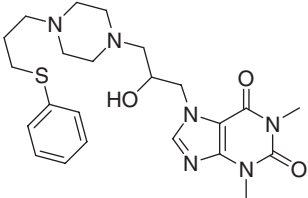
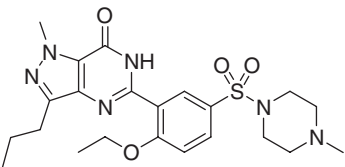
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±2 h <i>F</i> Low <i>pb</i> <99.7% <i>ur</i> >0.05% | <i>V</i> 1.3 <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 522.6 <i>PSA</i> 164 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.02 | TICAGRELOR, AZD6140 Platelet aggregation inhibitor, antithrombotic Metabolism: O-de(hydroxyethylation), N-decyclopropylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 h <i>F</i> 33–59% <i>pb</i> <14% <i>ur</i> 82% | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> 7.4 <i>Mwt</i> 241.3 <i>PSA</i> 96.2 Å ² <i>log P</i> –0.74 | PELDESINE Nucleoside phosphorylase inhibitor, immunomodulator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5–4.0 h <i>F</i> 14–46% <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> Low | <i>V</i> 0.15 <i>CL</i> 9–15 <i>Mwt</i> 167.2 <i>PSA</i> 111 Å ² <i>log P</i> –0.54 | THIOGUANINE Antineoplastic Metabolism: S-methylation, replacement of NH ₂ by OH, C-hydroxylation of imidazole, conversion to thioguanosine-5'-phosphate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17–29 h <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> <5% <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> 0.6–1.1 <i>CL</i> 0.3–0.5 <i>Mwt</i> 136.1 <i>PSA</i> 70.1 Å ² <i>log P</i> 0.55 | OXYPURINOL Active metabolite of allopurinol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h <i>F</i> 67–90% <i>pb</i> 3% <i>ur</i> <10% | <i>V</i> 1.6 <i>CL</i> 6–12 <i>Mwt</i> 136.1 <i>PSA</i> 70.1 Å ² <i>log P</i> –0.55 | ALLOPURINOL Xanthine oxidase inhibitor, antiuric lithic Active metabolite: oxypurinol (see above) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9±0.4 h <i>F</i> 12±7% <i>pb</i> 19% <i>ur</i> 22±12% | <i>V</i> 0.56±0.38 <i>CL</i> 11±4 <i>Mwt</i> 152.2 <i>PSA</i> 85.2 Å ² <i>log P</i> –0.30 | MERCAPTOPURINE Antineoplastic, immunosuppressant; metabolized intracellularly to 6-thioinosinate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.2±0.1 h <i>F</i> 60±30% <i>pb</i> 30% <i>ur</i> <2% | <i>V</i> 0.8±0.7 <i>CL</i> 57±31 <i>Mwt</i> 277.3 <i>PSA</i> 138 Å ² <i>log P</i> –1.05 | AZATHIOPRINE Prodrug of 6-mercaptopurine, immunosuppressant Metabolites: mercaptopurine, 6-thiouracil, 6-methylmercaptopurine |

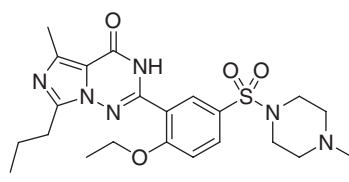
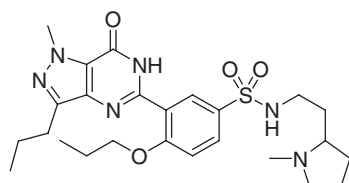
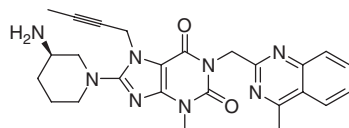
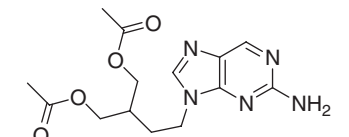
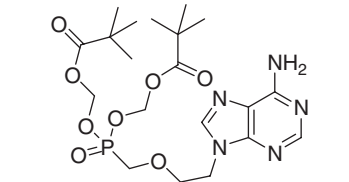
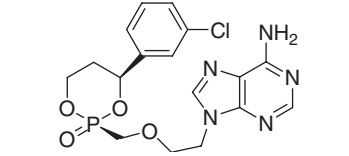
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6–2.4 h F 100% pb – ur 2% | V 0.8 ± 0.4 CL – Mwt 205.3 PSA 46.3 \AA^2 $\log P$ 2.31 | TRAPIDIL Vasodilator Metabolite: <i>N</i> -desethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 4–5 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 19 h F – pb >95% ur <0.1% | V – CL – Mwt 230.3 PSA 34.4 \AA^2 $\log P$ 2.44 | IBUDILAST Antiallergic, antiasthmatic, vasodilator, crosses bbb Metabolite: 6,7-dihydro |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–10 h F 80% pb 21% ur 10% | V 0.6 CL 1.0 Mwt 180.2 PSA 67.2 \AA^2 $\log P$ –1.06 | THEOBROMINE Antiasthmatic Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation, hydroxylation of imidazole (to methylated uric acids) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9 ± 2 h F $96 \pm 8\%$ pb $56 \pm 4\%$ ur $18 \pm 3\%$ | V 0.50 ± 0.16 CL 0.6 ± 0.2 Mwt 180.2 PSA 69.3 \AA^2 $\log P$ –0.28 | THEOPHYLLINE Antiasthmatic Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation, hydroxylation of imidazole (to methylated uric acids) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 ± 2 h F 100% pb $36 \pm 7\%$ ur $1.1 \pm 0.5\%$ | V 0.61 ± 0.02 CL 1.4 ± 0.5 Mwt 194.2 PSA 58.4 \AA^2 $\log P$ –0.63 | CAFFEINE CNS stimulant, smoking doubles clearance Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation, oxidation to uric acid, imidazole ring opening |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F >85% pb 47% ur 85–91% | V 0.5–0.6 CL 3–4 Mwt 194.2 PSA 78.1 \AA^2 $\log P$ 0.31 | ENPROFYLLINE Bronchodilator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F 80% pb – ur 16% | V 0.6 CL 1.8 Mwt 224.2 PSA 78.7 \AA^2 $\log P$ –0.91 | ETOFYLLINE Vasodilator Metabolism: hydroxylation |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–12 h F 100% pb – ur 18–29% | V 0.53–0.72 CL 0.78 Mwt 238.2 PSA 78.7 Å ² $\log P$ –0.56 | PROXYPHYLLINE Bronchodilator, vasodilator Metabolism: N3-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.8–2.3 h F 68–82% pb <3% ur 85–88% | V 0.4–0.8 CL 4.8 Mwt 254.2 PSA 98.9 Å ² $\log P$ –1.25 | DYPHYLLINE, DIPROPHYLLINE Bronchodilator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7±1 h F 63% pb 48% ur <4% | V 1 CL – Mwt 266.3 PSA 76.9 Å ² $\log P$ –0.87 | DOXOPHYLLINE Bronchodilator Metabolite: (hydroxyethyl)theophylline |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 48±11 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 260.3 PSA 82.4 Å ² $\log P$ 0.85 | FURAFYLLINE Antiasthmatic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9±0.3 h F 33±13% pb 0% ur 0% | V 4.2±0.9 CL 60±13 Mwt 278.3 PSA 75.5 Å ² $\log P$ –0.15 | PENTOXIFYLLINE Hemorheologic agent Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol, oxidation to 4-carboxybutyl and 3-carboxypropyl-3,7-dimethylxanthine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.74 h F 4%* pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 306.4 PSA 75.5 Å ² $\log P$ 0.87 | PROPENTOPHYLLINE *rabbit Vasodilator Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 1–2% pb – ur – | V 0.5 CL 7 Mwt 238.2 PSA 95.7 Å ² $\log P$ –0.78 | ACEFYLLINE Diuretic, cardiotonic, bronchodilator |

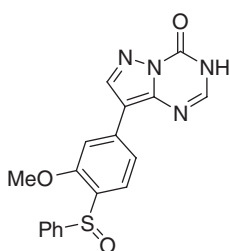
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 47 h F – pb – ur – | V/F 3 CL/F 1.5 Mwt 384.4 PSA 76.9 Å ² log P 2.63 | ISTRADIFYLLINE, KW-6002 Adenosine A _{2A} antagonist for treatment of Parkinson's disease |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–25 h F 92%* pb – ur – | V 5.6 CL – Mwt 416.5 PSA 107 Å ² log P 3.79 | BG 9928 *monkey Adenosine A ₁ antagonist, natriuresis enhancer |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6 h* F 84%* pb – ur 20%* | V – CL – Mwt 279.3 PSA 61.7 Å ² log P 0.57 | ETAMIPHYLLINE *rat Bronchodilator |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F – pb – ur – | V 18 CL – Mwt 385.5 PSA 81.9 Å ² log P 1.08 | BAMIFYLLINE Bronchodilator; active metabolite: des(hydroxyethyl) ($t_{1/2}$ 18 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16±8 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 472.6 PSA 110 Å ² log P 1.91 | TAZIFYLLINE Histamine H ₁ antagonist |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F 41% pb 96% ur <2% | V 1.5 CL 9.1 Mwt 474.6 PSA 113 Å ² log P 2.28 | SILDENAFIL Phosphodiesterase V inhibitor Metabolism: N-demethylation, oxidative degradation of piperazine |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–5 h F 15% pb 95% ur 2–6% | V 3 CL 13 Mwt 488.6 PSA 118 Å ² log P 3.03 | VARDENAFIL Active metabolite: <i>N</i> -desethyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–12 h F 38–56%* pb 94% ur – | V – CL/ F 7–23 Mwt 516.7 PSA 121 Å ² log P 3.08 | UDENAFIL, DA-8159 *rat Phosphodiesterase V inhibitor Metabolism: hydroxylation, N-demethylation, N-dealkylation of sulfonamide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 113–130 h F 15–51%* pb 75–99% ur 2.4% | V 4–40 CL 0.2–1.1 Mwt 472.5 PSA 113 Å ² log P 1.99 | LINAGLIPTIN *rat DPPIV inhibitor, antidiabetic Metabolism: hydroxylation of propargylic CH ₃ , oxidation of aromatic CH ₃ to CO ₂ H, acetylation of NH ₂ , oxidative deamination to piperidin-3-one, then reduction to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.3±0.4 h F 77±8% pb <20% ur 74±9% | V 0.98±0.13 CL 8.0±1.5 Mwt 321.3 PSA 122 Å ² log P –0.12 | FAMCICLOVIR Antiviral Prodrug of penciclovir (diol, F 5%); all data: diol on oral dosing of diacetate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–11 h** F 60%* pb 4%* ur 45%* | V 0.42* CL 3.7* Mwt 501.5 PSA 172 Å ² log P 2.45 | ADEFOVIR DIPIVOXIL Prodrug of adefovir (phosphonic acid); *adefovir on oral dosing of prodrug **prodrug: 1.6 h (iv) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–14 h F 19%* pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 423.8 PSA 124 Å ² log P 1.67 | PRADEFOVIR *monkey Prodrug of adefovir (phosphonic acid) |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 12–26 h* F 25%* pb <1%* ur 70–80%** | V 0.83** CL 3.8* Mwt 519.4 PSA 190 Å ² log P 2.04 | TENOFOVIR DISOPROXIL *tenofovir on oral dosing of prodrug **tenofovir iv Antiviral, prodrug of tenofovir (phosphonic acid) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 277.4 PSA 89.9 Å ² log P 2.61 | ERYTHROHYDROXYNONYL-ADENINE (EHNA) Adenosine deaminase inhibitor |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 0.17 CL 2.7 Mwt 589.7 PSA 209 Å ² log P 1.60 | KRN-5500 Antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ <1 h F – pb 90% ur <3% (rat) | V – CL – Mwt 354.5 PSA 87.9 Å ² log P 1.68 | ROSCOVITINE CDK inhibitor; crosses bbb Metabolism: oxidation of alcohol to carboxyl, N-dealkylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 10±4 h F – pb – ur 1% | V – CL – Mwt 409.5 PSA 74.1 Å ² log P 4.84 | V-11294A PDE4-inhibitor Metabolite: N-desethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 10±2 h) |



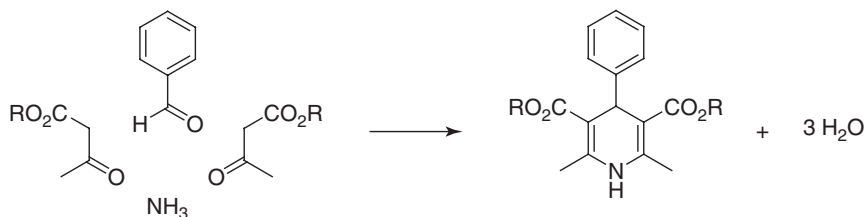
| | | | | |
|-----------|-----------|-------|---------------------|------------------------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 1.7–1.9 h | V | – | BOF-4272 |
| F | – | CL | – | Xanthine oxidase inhibitor for |
| pb | – | Mwt | 366.4 | treatment of hyperuricemia |
| ur | 1% | PSA | 89.4 Å ² | Metabolism: hydroxylation, |
| | | log P | 2.62 | reduction to sulfide, oxidation to |
| | | | | sulfone |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; CDK, cyclin-dependent kinases; CNS, central nervous system; PDE, phosphodiesterase.

62

Dihydropyridines

Dihydropyridines are readily prepared from ammonia, acetoacetic esters, and aldehydes (Scheme 62.1). This one-step synthesis does not allow any structural modification of the 1,4-dihydropyridine substructure but only a limited variation of the substituents.

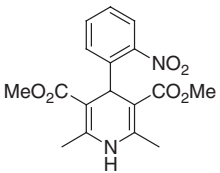
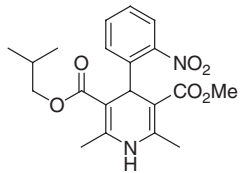
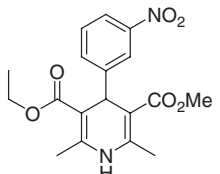
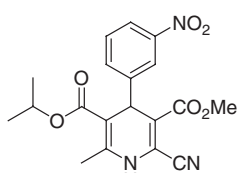
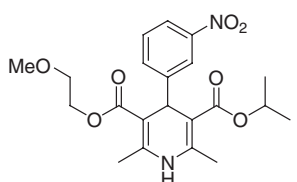
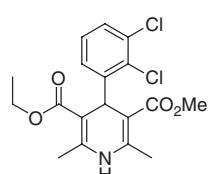


Scheme 62.1 Synthesis of dihydropyridines.

Dihydropyridines, discovered 1967 by Friedrich Bossert and Wulf Vater at Bayer, are one of the three main types of calcium channel blockers known (the other two are verapamil and diltiazem) and mainly act as vasodilators. Their target indications are angina and hypertension (Table 62.1).

Dihydropyridines such as nifedipine mainly undergo dehydrogenation to pyridines and ester hydrolysis *in vivo*. Some drugs of this type, though, have long half-lives, because the alkoxycarbonyl groups are in fact vinylogous carbamates, that is, the lone electron pair at the amino group stabilizes the ester against nucleophilic attack.

Table 62.1 Dihydropyridines (calcium channel blockers, antihypertensives). *V* in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|---|-------------------------|-----------|--------------|---------------------|--|
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 2.5±1.3 h | <i>V</i> | 0.8±0.2 | NIFEDIPINE |
| | <i>F</i> | 50±13% | CL | 7±2 | |
| | pb | 96±1% | Mwt | 346.3 | |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 110 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 3.58 | |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 7–15 h | <i>V</i> | 2–7 | NISOLDIPINE |
| | <i>F</i> | 4–8% | CL | 8–16 | |
| | pb | 99% | Mwt | 388.4 | |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 110 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 4.38 | |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 4±2 h | <i>V</i> | 3.8±1.3 | NITRENDIPINE CYP3A4 substrate |
| | <i>F</i> | 14–55% | CL | 21±4 | |
| | pb | 98% | Mwt | 360.4 | |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 110 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 3.81 | |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 11±2 h | <i>V</i> | 24 | NILVADIPINE |
| | <i>F</i> | 14–19% | CL | 7–18 | |
| | pb | 98% | Mwt | 385.4 | |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 134 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 3.38 | |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 1–3 h | <i>V</i> | 1.7±0.6 | NIMODIPINE CYP3A substrate |
| | <i>F</i> | 10±4% | CL | 19±6 | |
| | pb | 98% | Mwt | 418.4 | |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 120 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 4.05 | |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 14±4 h | <i>V</i> | 10±3 | FELODIPINE CYP3A substrate Metabolism: aromatization, ester hydrolysis, hydroxylation of methyl groups |
| | <i>F</i> | 15±8% | CL | 12±5 | |
| | pb | 99% | Mwt | 384.3 | |
| | ur | <0.5% | PSA | 64.6 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | 4.76 | |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|---|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h F – pb 97% ur – | V – CL 28 Mwt 371.4 PSA 104 Å ² log P 3.88 | DARODIPINE |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 8±5 h F 19±7% pb 97% ur 0% | V 4±2 CL 10±1 Mwt 371.4 PSA 104 Å ² log P 3.73 | |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 492.5 PSA 120 Å ² log P 5.36 | CILNIDIPINE, CINALDIPINE |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–11 h F 2–52% pb >95% ur 0% | V 0.9–2.3 CL 125 Mwt 455.5 PSA 90.9 Å ² log P 5.99 | |
| | $t_{1/2}$ <10 min F – pb >99% ur 0% | V 0.6 CL 142–170 Mwt 456.3 PSA 90.9 Å ² log P 5.46 | CLEVIDIPINE Antihypertensive for iv dosing |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3–11 h F 3–40% pb >98% ur 0% | V 2.0–2.5 CL 336 Mwt 611.7 PSA 114 Å ² log P 7.56 | |

| | | | |
|--|--|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4–8 h F – pb 99% ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 610.7 PSA 117 Å ² log P 5.66 | MANIDIPINE |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3±0.5 h F 18±11% pb 98–99% ur <1% | V 1.1±0.3 CL 10.4±3.1 Mwt 479.5 PSA 114 Å ² log P 4.89 | NICARDIPINE |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 10–24 h* F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 524.6 PSA 86.3 Å ² log P 6.20 | ELGODIPINE *iv |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 8–20 h F 3–4% pb 92–99% ur 0% | V – CL 9–10 Mwt 491.5 PSA 114 Å ² log P 5.13 | BARNIDIPINE CYP3A4 substrate Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, oxidation to pyridine, and N-debenzylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 39±8 h F 74±17% pb 93±1% ur 5–10% | V 16±4 CL 5.9±1.5 Mwt 408.9 PSA 99.9 Å ² log P 4.16 | AMLODIPINE Metabolism: deamination |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

63

Arenesulfonamides

The sulfonamide group may be either a replaceable structural element of drugs or an essential pharmacophore. Sulfonamides show exceptional chemical and metabolic stability and do not undergo hydrolysis *in vivo*. The half-life of these drugs mainly depends on their rate of renal excretion and metabolic degradation of other functional groups.

Mainly three types of drug owe their biological activity to a sulfonamide group: antibacterial 4-aminobenzenesulfonamides (inhibitors of folate biosynthesis by mimicking 4-aminobenzoic acid), hypoglycemic sulfonylureas (blockers of the ATP-sensitive potassium channel), and diuretics (carbonic anhydrase inhibitors) (Table 63.1).

63.1

Antibacterials

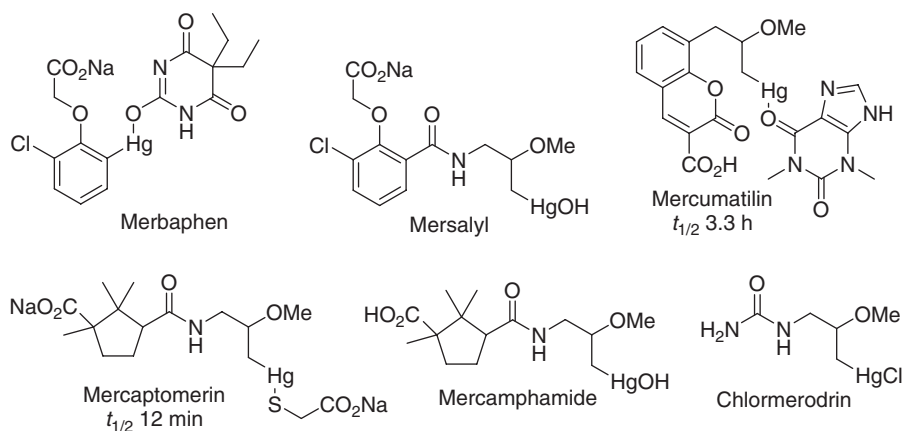
Prontosil, a prodrug of sulfanilamide, was patented in 1932 by the German chemists Josef Klarer and Fritz Mietzsch (I.G. Farben). The credit for the discovery of prontosils antibacterial properties went to Gerhard Domagk, a research director at I.G. Farben, who was awarded the 1938 Noble Prize in Medicine for his discovery. Prontosil was a true breakthrough in the treatment of bacterial infections, and numerous other improved sulfonamide antibacterials were developed later. As mimetics of 4-aminobenzoic acid, these compounds inhibit the bacterial biosynthesis of folate. The widespread use of these sulfonamides at high doses revealed some interesting side effects, which led to the development of the sulfonamide-based diuretics and the hypoglycemic sulfonylureas (Chapter 64).

63.2

Diuretics

Diuretics are used to treat several diseases, not all of them being directly related to renal function [1]. The adjustment of volume or composition of body fluids can be required for the treatment of heart failure, hypertension, cirrhosis, nephrotic syndrome, and renal failure.

The first diuretics used as such were plant extracts containing digitoxin, caffeine, or theobromine. In 1886, Ernst Jendrassik reported that Hg_2Cl_2 (calomel) had a strong diuretic effect. Extracts of digitalis to which small amounts of mercurous chloride had been added were used as diuretics until the 1950s. Two physicians, Alfred Vogl and Paul Saxl, at the First Medical University of Vienna discovered the diuretic properties of organomercurials. These were originally used only as antiseptics or to treat syphilis, but careful monitoring of the patients clearly revealed their potent diuretic effect. Compounds such as merbaphen, mersalyl, mercamphamide, mercaptomerin, and chlormerodrin were common diuretics until the 1950s (Scheme 63.1).



Scheme 63.1 Organomercurials as drugs.

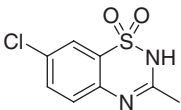
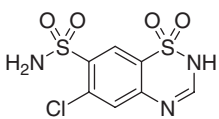
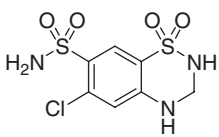
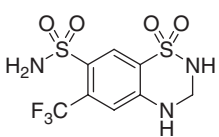
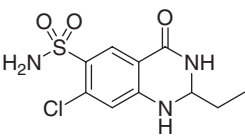
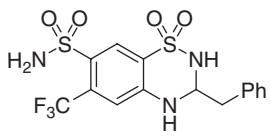
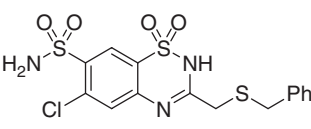
Organomercurials act by binding to thiol groups in dehydrogenases located in renal tubules, thereby inhibiting these enzymes. Because of the (surprisingly low) toxicity of these organomercurials, other less toxic diuretics were sought. One of these was the Michael acceptor ethacrynic acid, launched in 1962, also an irreversible dehydrogenase inhibitor.

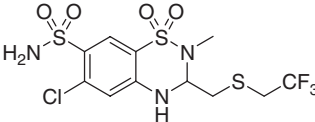
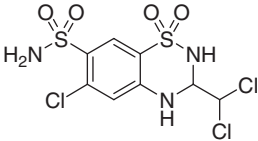
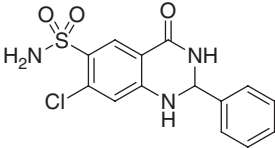
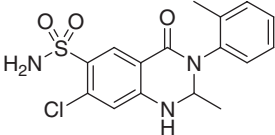
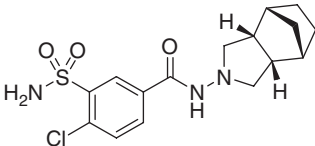
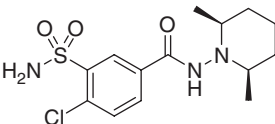
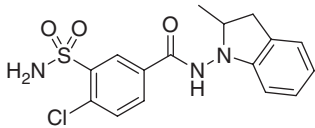
High doses of sulfonamide antibacterials, such as sulfanilamide (4-aminobenzenesulfonamide), also induce diuresis. In 1940, it was discovered that many sulfonamides with unsubstituted nitrogen (RSO_2NH_2) inhibit carbonic anhydrase, the enzyme that catalyzes the addition of water to CO_2 . Because the kidneys contain large amounts of carbonic anhydrase, it was correctly proposed in 1941 that the diuretic effect of sulfonamides was due to inhibition of renal carbonic anhydrase. The search for more potent and selective sulfonamide-based carbonic anhydrase inhibitors led to the discovery of a large number of useful diuretics, the first being acetazolamide (1952) and chlorothiazide (1957).

Reference

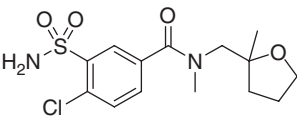
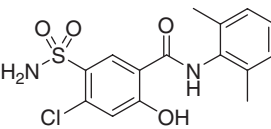
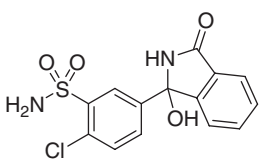
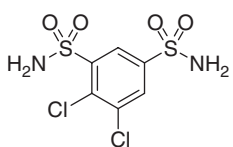
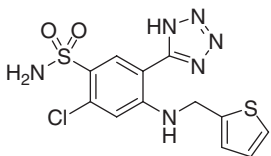
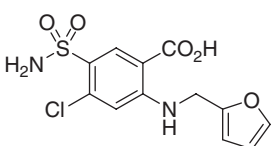
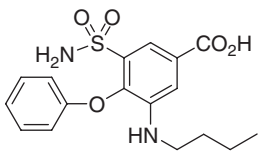
1. Sneider, W. (1997) Diuretics. *Drug News Perspect.*, **10**, 364–369.

Table 63.1 Sulfonamides and related compounds. *V* in l kg⁻¹; *CL* in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; *Mwt* in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 48±12 h <i>F</i> 86–96% pb 94±14% ur 35±15% | <i>V</i> 0.21±0.02 <i>CL</i> 0.06±0.02 <i>Mwt</i> 230.7 <i>PSA</i> 66.9 Å ² <i>log P</i> 1.19 | DIAZOXIDE Antihypoglycemic, antihypertensive Metabolism: hydroxylation of CH ₃ , then oxidation to CO ₂ H |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 1.5±0.2 h <i>F</i> 33–56% pb 95±1% ur 92±5% | <i>V</i> 0.20±0.08 <i>CL</i> 4.5±1.7 <i>Mwt</i> 295.7 <i>PSA</i> 135 Å ² <i>log P</i> -0.15 | CHLOROTHIAZIDE Diuretic, antihypertensive |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 7–15 h <i>F</i> 71±15% pb 58±17% ur >95% | <i>V</i> 0.8±0.3 <i>CL</i> 4.9±1.1 <i>Mwt</i> 297.7 <i>PSA</i> 135 Å ² <i>log P</i> -0.02 | HYDROCHLOROTHIAZIDE Diuretic Metabolism: hydrolysis of aminor (4% in urine) |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 10±7 h <i>F</i> 63±12% pb 74% ur 50–70% | <i>V</i> 5 <i>CL</i> 6.4 <i>Mwt</i> 331.3 <i>PSA</i> 135 Å ² <i>log P</i> 0.08 | HYDROFLUMETHIAZIDE Diuretic, antihypertensive Metabolism: hydrolysis of aminor |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 6–15 h <i>F</i> – pb – ur – | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 289.7 <i>PSA</i> 110 Å ² <i>log P</i> 3.59 | QUINETHAZONE Diuretic, antihypertensive |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 3.8±1.2 h <i>F</i> 60–90% pb 94% ur 30% | <i>V</i> 1.0–1.5 <i>CL</i> 4.3 <i>Mwt</i> 421.4 <i>PSA</i> 135 Å ² <i>log P</i> 1.29 | BENDROFLUMETHIAZIDE Diuretic, antihypertensive |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 5–15 h <i>F</i> 60–70% pb 30% ur <1% | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 431.9 <i>PSA</i> 161 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.58 | BENZTHIAZIDE Diuretic, antihypertensive |

| | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 26 h F High pb 80–85% ur 25% | V 4.1 CL – Mwt 439.9 PSA 152 Å ² log P 2.05 | POLYTHIAZIDE Diuretic, antihypertensive |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.3±1.9 h F 60% pb – ur 62–70% | V 0.4* CL 3.4 Mwt 380.7 PSA 135 Å ² log P 0.13 | TRICHLORMETHIAZIDE *calves Diuretic, antihypertensive |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17 h F >53% pb – ur – | V 10.6 CL – Mwt 337.8 PSA 110 Å ² log P 4.17 | FENQUIZONE Diuretic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14±8 h F 40–65% pb 95% ur 80–95% | V 1.6 CL 1.4 Mwt 365.8 PSA 101 Å ² log P 3.16 | METOLAZONE Diuretic, antihypertensive |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10 h F >80% pb – ur <1.5% | V – CL – Mwt 369.9 PSA 101 Å ² log P 2.21 | TRIPAMIDE Diuretic, antihypertensive Metabolism: hydrazide hydrolysis, hydrazide N-acetylation, hydroxylation of bicycloalkyl group |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±3 h F 85% pb 46% ur 33% | V 1.5 CL 2.5 Mwt 345.8 PSA 101 Å ² log P 2.08 | CLOPAMIDE Antihypertensive, diuretic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18±6 h F 93% pb 79% ur 5–7% | V 0.4–1.6 CL – Mwt 365.8 PSA 101 Å ² log P 1.96 | INDAPAMIDE Antihypertensive, diuretic Metabolism: indoline 5-hydroxylation, dehydrogenation to indole, then oxidation to indol-3-one |


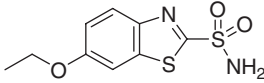
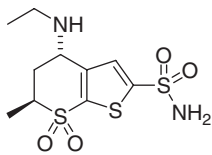
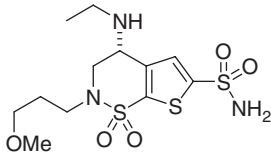
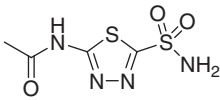
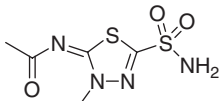
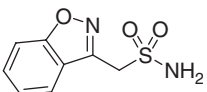
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±5 h F >70% pb 64% ur 0.5% | V 4.8–8.0 CL 5.8–33 Mwt 382.9 PSA 124 Å ² log P 1.79 | MEFRUSIDE Diuretic Metabolism: oxidation to γ -lactone, then hydrolysis to hydroxy carboxylic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7±1 h F 73% pb 99% ur 40% | V 0.3 CL 0.54 Mwt 354.8 PSA 118 Å ² log P 2.19 | XIPAMIDE Diuretic, antihypertensive Metabolism: O-glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 47±22 h F 64±10% pb 75±1% ur 65±9% | V 0.10±0.04 CL 0.04±0.01 Mwt 338.8 PSA 118 Å ² log P 0.70 | CHLORTHALIDONE Diuretic, antihypertensive Metabolism: reversible ring opening to benzophenone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ – F – pb 55% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 305.2 PSA 137 Å ² log P 0.34 | DICHLORPHENAMIDE Carbonic anhydrase inhibitor for treatment of glaucoma Duration of action: 6–12 h |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 15–20% pb >95% ur 27% | V 0.26 CL 1.7 Mwt 370.8 PSA 163 Å ² log P 1.40 | AZOSEMIDE Diuretic Metabolism: N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.3–3.4 h F 61±17% pb 98.8±0.2% ur 66±7% | V 0.11±0.02 CL 2.0±0.4 Mwt 330.7 PSA 131 Å ² log P 2.30 | FUROSEMIDE Diuretic Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation, N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8±0.2 h F 59–89% pb 99% ur 62±20% | V 0.13±0.03 CL 2.6±0.5 Mwt 364.4 PSA 127 Å ² log P 2.88 | BUMETANIDE Diuretic Metabolism: glucuronidation, β -, γ -, and δ -hydroxylation of butyl, N-debutylation, oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H |

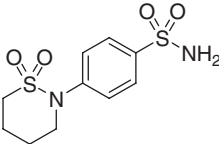
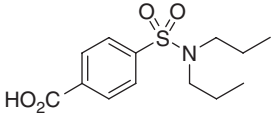
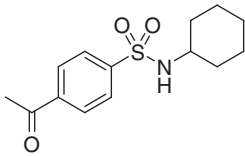
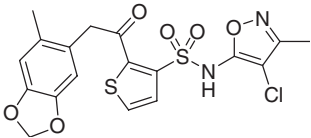
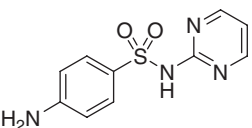
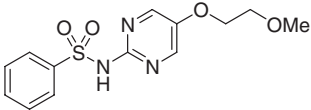
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0±0.5 h <i>F</i> 80% <i>pb</i> 94% <i>ur</i> 50% | <i>V</i> 0.25–0.30 <i>CL</i> 3.8±0.8 (iv) <i>Mwt</i> 362.4 <i>PSA</i> 118 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.30 | PIRETANIDE Diuretic Metabolism: cleavage of pyrrolidine to aminobutanol |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–5 h <i>F</i> 50–70% <i>pb</i> 96–99% <i>ur</i> 1–3% | <i>V</i> 0.16–0.39 <i>CL</i> 0.5–1.8 <i>Mwt</i> 308.3 <i>PSA</i> 110 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.70 | NIMESULIDE Antiinflammatory, hepatotoxic Main metabolite: 4-hydroxyphenoxy ($t_{1/2}$ 6±3 h) Further metabolism: reduction of NO ₂ to NH ₂ , then oxidation to quinoneimine, followed by reaction with nucleophiles |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h* (iv) <i>F</i> 63%* <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 353.3 <i>PSA</i> 80.8 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.05 | FLOSULIDE *monkey COX-2 inhibitor |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 11–16 h <i>F</i> 40% <i>pb</i> >97% <i>ur</i> <2% | <i>V</i> 5.7–7.1 <i>CL</i> 6–8 <i>Mwt</i> 381.4 <i>PSA</i> 81.4 Å ² <i>log P</i> 4.21 | CELECOXIB Antiinflammatory, analgesic Metabolism (by CYP2C9): hydroxylation of CH ₃ , then oxidation to CO ₂ H and glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 17–26 h <i>F</i> 45%* <i>pb</i> 90% <i>ur</i> <0.2% | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 381.8 <i>PSA</i> 90.7 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.11 | CIMICOXIB, UR-8880 *dog COX-2 inhibitor, antiinflammatory, antidepressant Metabolism: O-demethylation, then glucuronidation |

(continued overleaf)

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|--|---|---|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 9±2 h F 83% pb 98% ur <5% | V 1.3 CL 1.7 Mwt 314.4 PSA 94.6 Å ² log P 1.71 | VALDECOXIB Antiinflammatory, analgesic Metabolism: glucuronidation, reductive cleavage of N–O bond, 4-hydroxylation of Ph, hydroxylation of CH ₃ , then oxidation to CO ₂ H; withdrawn in 2005 for adverse skin reactions and increasing risk of myocardial infarction |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.3–1.0 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 370.4 PSA 97.7 Å ² log P 1.72 | PARECOXIB Water soluble, injectable prodrug of valdecoxib Metabolism: N-depropionylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ >200 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 411.3 PSA 70.8 Å ² log P 4.24 | DuP 697 COX-2 inhibitor Long half-life due to enterohepatic recirculation; development discontinued |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 17 h F 93% pb 87% ur <1% | V 1.4 CL 1.9 Mwt 314.4 PSA 68.8 Å ² log P 1.34 | ROFECOXIB Antiinflammatory, analgesic Metabolism: 4-hydroxylation and 3,4-dihydroxylation of Ph, hydrogenation of olefin, hydroxylation at CH ₂ O, reversible lactone hydrolysis; withdrawn in 2004 because of risk of thrombosis and myocardial infarction |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 21–27 h F 100% pb 92% ur <1% | V 1.6–1.7 CL 0.7–0.8 Mwt 358.8 PSA 68.3 Å ² log P 2.21 | ETORICOXIB Antiinflammatory, analgesic Metabolism: hydroxylation of CH ₃ , then oxidation to CO ₂ H and glucuronidation |

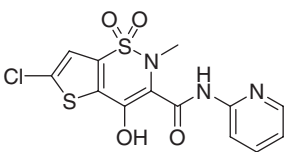
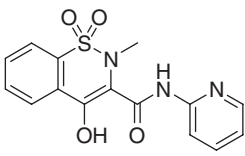
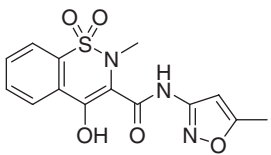
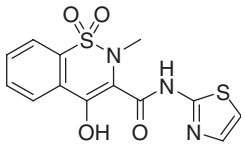
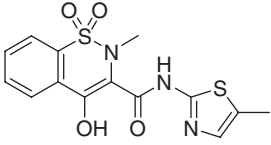
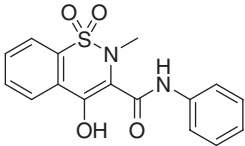
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16–20 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 527.2 PSA 54.6 Å ² log P 7.79 | SULFLURAMID Insecticide Metabolism: N-deethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.0±1.5 h F 65% pb >95% ur 40% | V – CL – Mwt 258.3 PSA 119 Å ² log P 2.14 | ETHOXZOLAMIDE Carbonic anhydrase inhibitor, diuretic, antiglaucoma agent |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 133 d F – pb 33% ur 30–40% | V – CL – Mwt 324.4 PSA 151 Å ² log P 0.10 | DORZOLAMIDE Carbonic anhydrase inhibitor; antiglaucoma agent Metabolism (CYP2E1 and CYP3A2): N-deethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 111 d F – pb 60% ur High | V – CL – Mwt 383.5 PSA 164 Å ² log P 0.28 | BRINZOLAMIDE Carbonic anhydrase inhibitor; antiglaucoma agent Metabolism: N-deethylation, O-demethylation, N-demethoxypropylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7±5 h F 100% pb 85–95% ur 100% | V 0.2–0.4 CL 0.65 Mwt 222.3 PSA 152 Å ² log P –0.26 | ACETAZOLAMIDE Carbonic anhydrase inhibitor, antiglaucoma agent, diuretic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14 h F 100% pb 72% ur 25–60% | V 0.07 CL 0.01 Mwt 236.3 PSA 139 Å ² log P 0.13 | METHAZOLAMIDE Carbonic anhydrase inhibitor; diuretic Metabolism: conjugation with cysteine (by nucleophilic displacement of SO ₂ NH ₂ by thiol) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 59±9 h F 38–40% pb 50–60% ur 15–35% | V 1.2–1.8 CL 0.26–0.32 Mwt 212.2 PSA 94.6 Å ² log P 0.72 | ZONISAMIDE Antiepileptic Metabolism: N-acetylation and N-hydroxylation of sulfonamide, hydroxylation of CH ₂ , reductive N–O bond cleavage, then reduction of imine to amine and N-acetylation |

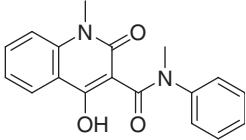
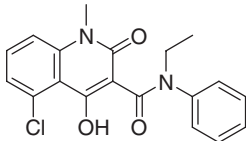
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9±3 h F >90% pb 29% ur 17–69% | V – CL – Mwt 290.4 PSA 114 Å ² log P 0.56 | SULTHIAME Anticonvulsant, carbonic anhydrase inhibitor Metabolism: hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–12 h F 100% pb 90±5% ur 1.2±0.2% | V 0.17±0.03 CL 0.4 Mwt 285.4 PSA 83.1 Å ² log P 2.51 | PROBENECID Uricosuric Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation, hydroxylation at CH ₂ CH ₃ and CH ₃ , N-depropylation, oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0–1.3 h F – pb 90% ur Low | V – CL – Mwt 324.4 PSA 101 Å ² log P 2.44 | ACETOHEXAMIDE Antidiabetic Active metabolite: alcohol ($t_{1/2}$ 6.5±1.5 h) formed by reduction of the acetyl group |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7–13 h F 70–100% pb >99% ur <1% | V/F 1 CL/F 1.3–1.5 Mwt 454.9 PSA 144 Å ² log P 2.77 | SITAXENTAN Endothelin antagonist, treatment of pulmonary hypertension; crosses bbb Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation, then oxidation to 1,2-diketone, hydrolysis of acetal, then O-methylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9.9±4.3 h F 100% pb 54±4% ur 57±14% | V 0.29±0.04 CL 0.55±0.17 Mwt 250.3 PSA 106 Å ² log P –0.07 | SULFADIAZINE Antibacterial Metabolism: aniline N-acetylation and N-hydroxylation, pyrimidine 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4±2 h F – pb 80–90% ur 1% | V – CL – Mwt 309.3 PSA 98.8 Å ² log P –0.07 | GLYMIDINE Antidiabetic Metabolism: O-demethylation |

| | | | |
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 100–230 h <i>F</i> High pb 90% ur 30–60% | V 0.37–0.41 CL – Mwt 310.33 PSA 125 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.46 | SULFADOXINE Antibacterial Metabolism: N-acetylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 10±5 h <i>F</i> 100% pb 62±5% ur 14±2% | V 0.21±0.02 CL 0.32±0.04 Mwt 253.3 PSA 107 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.66 | SULFAMETHOXAZOLE Antibacterial Metabolism: aniline N-acetylation and N-hydroxylation, N-glucuronidation of sulfonamide |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6.6±0.7 h <i>F</i> 96±14% pb 91±1% ur 49±8% | V 0.15±0.02 CL 0.33±0.01 Mwt 267.3 PSA 107 Å ² log <i>P</i> 1.01 | SULFISOXAZOLE Antibacterial Metabolism: aniline N-acetylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4–11 h <i>F</i> – pb 25% ur 65–71% | V 0.1 CL – Mwt 267.3 PSA 107 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.68 | SULFAMOXOLE Antibacterial Metabolism: N-acetylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 9±4 h <i>F</i> 20% pb 50% ur 10–20 % | V 0.4–1.2 CL 0.6–2.1 Mwt 249.3 PSA 93.5 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.47 | SULFAPYRIDINE Metabolite of sulfasalazine; all values: sulfapyridine on oral dosing of sulfasalazine Metabolism: N-acetylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 23.5 h <i>F</i> 89% pb >99% ur <1% | V 0.11 CL 0.06 Mwt 320.8 PSA 112 Å ² log <i>P</i> 1.59 | TENIDAP Antiinflammatory Metabolism: benzene and thiophene hydroxylation; hepatotoxic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 68±8 h <i>F</i> 100% pb >99% ur Negligible | V 0.12–0.15 CL 0.02–0.06 Mwt 337.4 PSA 136 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.01 | TENOXICAM Antiinflammatory Metabolism: pyridine 5'-hydroxylation, thiophene 2-hydroxylation, glucuronidation |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4±1 h F 100% pb 99.7% ur Negligible | V 0.1–0.2 CL 0.36–0.81 Mwt 371.8 PSA 136 Å ² log P 0.77 | LORNOXICAM Antiinflammatory, analgesic; pyridyl: p <i>K_a</i> 5.5 Metabolism: pyridine 5'-hydroxylation, glucuronidation; 5'-hydroxylornoxicam does not undergo enterohepatic recirculation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 48±8 h F 100% pb 99% ur <5% | V/F 0.15±0.03 CL/ F 0.04 Mwt 331.4 PSA 108 Å ² log P 0.59 | PIROXICAM Antiinflammatory Metabolism: pyridine 5'-hydroxylation, then glucuronidation, hydrolysis of amide, then decarboxylation, cyclodehydration |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 22–45 h F 97% pb 98% ur 2% | V 0.2 CL 0.08 Mwt 335.3 PSA 121 Å ² log P 0.90 | ISOXICAM Antiinflammatory, does not cross bbb Metabolism: hydroxylation of CCH ₃ , withdrawn in 1985 because of fatal skin reactions |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24–96 h F High pb – ur – | V 0.2–0.3 CL – Mwt 337.4 PSA 136 Å ² log P 2.36 | SUDOXICAM Antiinflammatory, hepatotoxic due to hydrolysis and N-dealkylation to acylthiourea and reactive aldehyde; development stopped in phase III |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 19±5 h F 89–97% pb >99% ur <0.3% | V 0.14–0.21 CL 0.10–0.16 Mwt 351.4 PSA 136 Å ² log P 2.66 | MELOXICAM Nonhepatotoxic, antiinflammatory Metabolism (by CYP2C9): hydroxylation of CCH ₃ , then oxidation to thiazole carboxylic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 21 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 330.4 PSA 95.1 Å ² log P 0.89 | CP 14304 Metabolism: 4-hydroxylation of Ph |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|---------|----------|---------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 26–42 h | V | 0.22 | ROQUINIMEX Antineoplastic Metabolism: hydroxylation, N-demethylation, glucuronidation |
| | F | 100% | CL | 0.1 | |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 308.3 | |
| | ur | 1% | PSA | 60.9 Å ² | |
| | | | $\log P$ | 1.03 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 80 h | V | 0.2 | LAQUINIMOD Treatment of multiple sclerosis Metabolism: N-deethylation, N-demethylation, aniline and quinolone aromatic hydroxylation |
| | F | 82–95% | CL | – | |
| | pb | 99% | Mwt | 356.8 | |
| | ur | 10% | PSA | 60.9 Å ² | |
| | | | $\log P$ | 2.69 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL , clearance; Mwt , molecular weight; PSA , polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier; COX, cyclooxygenase.

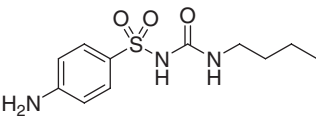
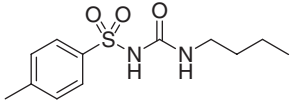
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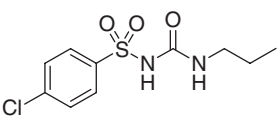
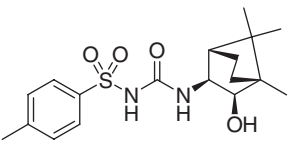
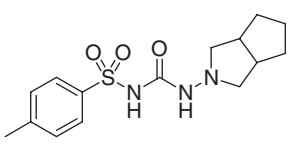
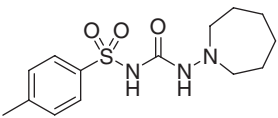
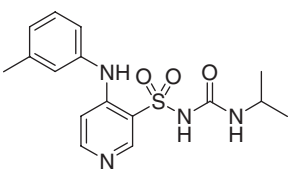
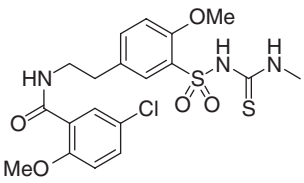
Sulfonylureas

The antidiabetic effect of sulfonylureas was discovered two times. In France, physicians noticed in 1942 that some sulfonamides used for the treatment of typhoid fever caused hypoglycemia in patients and experimental animals. Despite recognizing its importance, this finding remained unexploited during the war, as the lack of food also lowered the number of diabetics. In 1954, Hans Franke and Joachim Fuchs rediscovered the hypoglycemic properties of the sulfonylurea carbutamide by testing it on themselves. This compound was the first sulfonylurea used to treat type II diabetes, but had to be withdrawn because of adverse effects on bone marrow. It was replaced by tolbutamide (1956), and since then a large number of sulfonylureas with improved potency and pharmacokinetics (PK) properties were developed (Table 64.1). As the potency of sulfonylureas increased, toxicity became less of an issue.

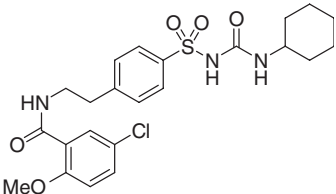
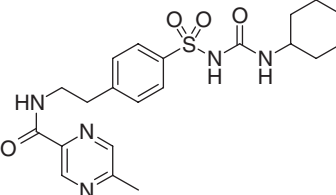
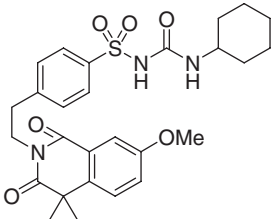
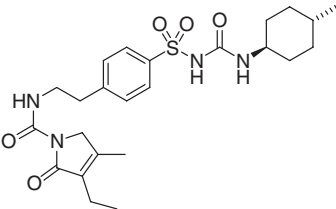
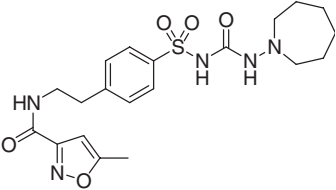
Sulfonylureas block the ATP-sensitive potassium channel in pancreatic β -cells, and thereby stimulate the release of insulin. Hence, these drugs can only be used to treat type II diabetes, where the pancreas is still capable of producing insulin.

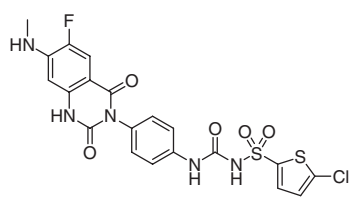
Table 64.1 Sulfonylureas. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-------------------------|--------------|----------------------|----------------------------------|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | $30 \pm 6 \text{ h}$ | V | – | CARBUTAMIDE |
| | F | – | CL | – | Antidiabetic with high bone |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 271.3 | marrow toxicity |
| | ur | – | PSA | 110 \AA^2 | Metabolism: N-acetylation |
| | | | $\log P$ | 1.01 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | $5.9 \pm 1.4 \text{ h}$ | V | 0.10 ± 0.02 | TOLBUTAMIDE |
| | F | $93 \pm 10\%$ | CL | 0.24 ± 0.04 | Antidiabetic; CYP2C9 substrate |
| | pb | $96 \pm 1\%$ | Mwt | 270.4 | Metabolism: benzylic |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 83.7 \AA^2 | hydroxylation, then oxidation to |
| | | | $\log P$ | 2.36 | benzoic acid |

| | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 33±6 h F >90% pb 96±0.6% ur 20±18% | V/F 0.1±0.01 CL/ F 0.03±0.005 Mwt 276.7 PSA 83.7 Å ² log P 2.30 | CHLORPROPAMIDE Antidiabetic Metabolism: propyl 2- and 3-hydroxylation, N-depropylation, hydrolysis to 4-chlorobenzenesulfonamide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±3 h F 91% pb 95% ur – | V 0.25 CL – Mwt 366.5 PSA 104 Å ² log P 2.69 | GLIBORNURIDE Antidiabetic Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation, then oxidation to benzoic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14±6 h F 79–100% pb 85–95% ur <1% | V 0.18–0.34 CL 0.19 Mwt 323.4 PSA 86.9 Å ² log P 1.61 | GLITCLAZIDE Antidiabetic Metabolism: glucuronidation, benzylic hydroxylation, then oxidation to benzoic acid, methylene hydroxylation at cyclopentane |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6±2 h F – pb 94% ur 4–8% | V – CL – Mwt 311.4 PSA 86.9 Å ² log P 1.54 | TOLAZAMIDE Antidiabetic Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation, then oxidation to benzoic acid, 4-hydroxylation of azepine, hydrolysis to toluenesulfonamide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4±1 h F 75–89% pb >99% ur 20–25% | V 0.19–0.23 CL 0.5–0.6 Mwt 348.4 PSA 109 Å ² log P 1.96 | TORSEMIDE, TORASEMIDE Diuretic Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation and oxidation to carboxylic acid, hydroxylation of CHCH ₃ , aromatic 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.6–0.7 h F 86% pb High ur – | V – CL 4–5 Mwt 472.0 PSA 146 Å ² log P 1.54 | CLAMIKALANT Potassium channel blocker, antiarrhythmic |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|------------|-------|--------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 17±3 h | V | 0.2±0.1 | GLYBURIDE, GLIBENCLAMIDE |
| | F | 64–100% | CL | 1.3±0.5 | Antidiabetic |
| | pb | 99.8% | Mwt | 494.0 | Metabolism: 4-trans and 3-cis |
| | ur | Negligible | PSA | 122 Å ² | hydroxylation of cyclohexyl |
| | | | log P | 3.08 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3.4±0.7 h | V | 0.17±0.02 | GLIPIZIDE |
| | F | 95% | CL | 0.52±0.18 | Antidiabetic |
| | pb | 98% | Mwt | 445.5 | Metabolism: cyclohexyl 3- and |
| | ur | <5% | PSA | 139 Å ² | 4-hydroxylation, hydroxylation of |
| | | | log P | 1.88 | CH ₃ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 15±9 h | V | – | GLIQUIDONE |
| | F | – | CL | – | Antidiabetic |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 527.6 | Poorly water soluble |
| | ur | Negligible | PSA | 130 Å ² | Metabolism: cyclohexyl |
| | | | log P | 3.91 | 4-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 6±3 h | V | 0.12 | GLIMEPIRIDE |
| | F | 100% | CL | 0.6–0.8 | Antidiabetic |
| | pb | 99.4% | Mwt | 490.6 | Metabolism: hydroxylation of |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 133 Å ² | cyclohexyl-bound CH ₃ (to |
| | | | log P | 3.45 | hydroxyglimepiride; $t_{1/2}$ 3.1±0.4 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2 h | V | 0.4 | GLISOXEPID |
| | F | 95% | CL | 0.9 | Antidiabetic |
| | pb | 93% | Mwt | 449.5 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 142 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 0.81 | |

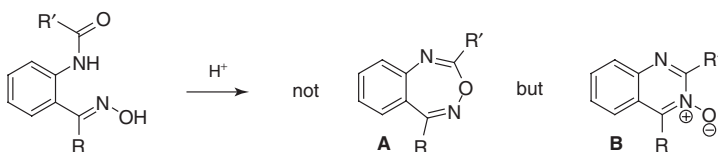
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|---|-----------|---------|-------|--------------------|-----------------------------|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 11–12 h | V | – | ELINOGREL |
| | F | 50% | CL | – | Antiplatelet agent |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 524.0 | Metabolism: N-demethylation |
| | ur | – | PSA | 173 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 3.00 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

65

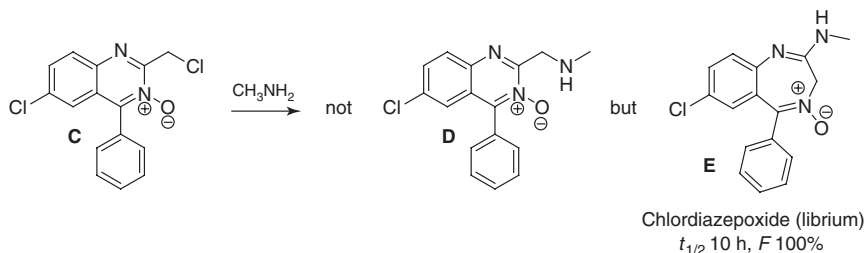
Benzodiazepines

Benzodiazepines belong to the few types of drug that originated from a purely chemical approach, without seeking inspiration in natural products. During the mid-1950s, Leo Sternbach at Hoffmann-La Roche Inc., Nutley, was trying to find a new type of tranquilizer and prepared a series of compounds related to his postdoctoral work [1]. Initially, these were believed to be heptoxdiazines, **A**, but turned out to be quinazoline-*N*-oxides, **B** (Scheme 65.1).



Scheme 65.1 Synthesis of quinazoline-*N*-oxides.

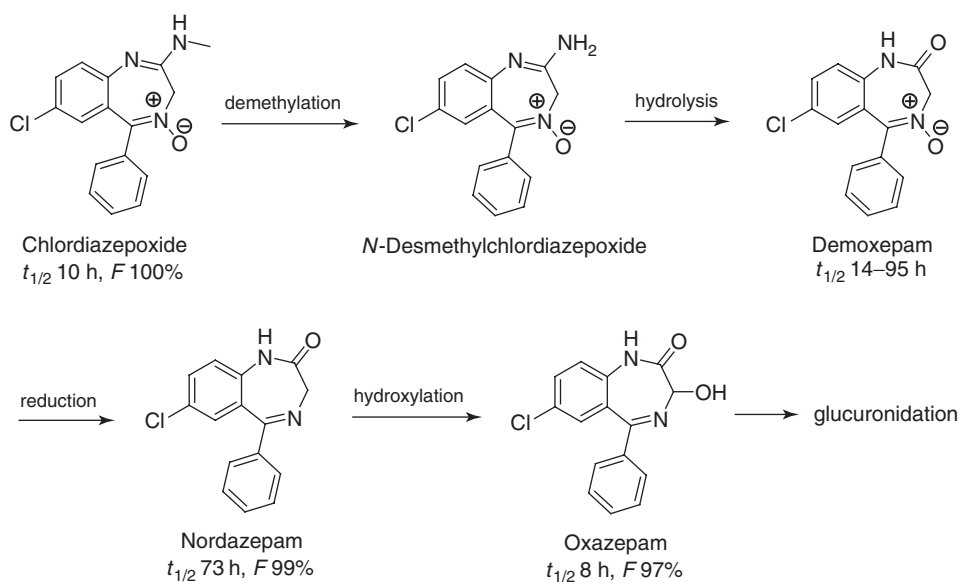
Because all the compounds tested were inactive, and other, more urgent work had to be done, the project was halted in the second half of 1955. Two years later, while cleaning up the laboratory, the crystalline product of the reaction of methylamine with quinazoline-*N*-oxide, **C** (Scheme 65.2) was found and submitted for direct testing in animals (something unthinkable today). This product turned out to be a potent tranquilizer of low toxicity and had good pharmacokinetic (PK) properties. Again, a wrong structure (**D**) had initially been assigned to this product, which turned out to be the benzodiazepine chlordiazepoxide (**E**). This compound was launched 1960 under the trademark Librium.



Scheme 65.2 Synthesis of chlordiazepoxide.

Since then thousands of benzodiazepines were prepared and evaluated, and many of them reached the market (Table 65.1). These compounds are mainly used as anxiolytics and hypnotics.

The main metabolic pathways of representative benzodiazepines are sketched in Scheme 65.3. Often, the metabolites of benzodiazepines are biologically active, and the dosing must be adjusted accordingly. All benzodiazepines cross the blood–brain barrier (bbb).

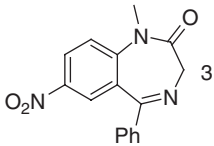
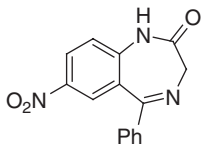
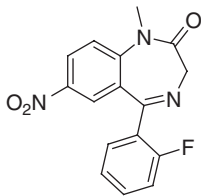
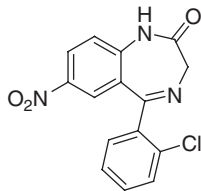
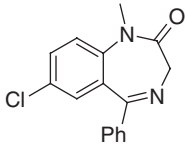
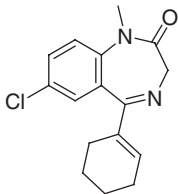


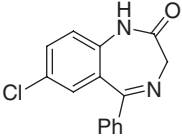
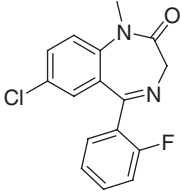
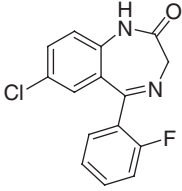
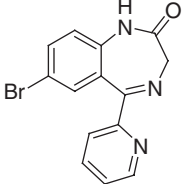
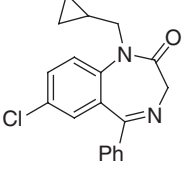
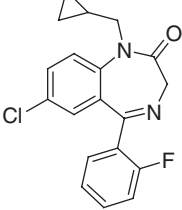
Scheme 65.3 Metabolism of benzodiazepines.

Reference

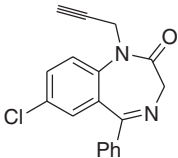
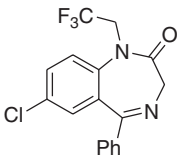
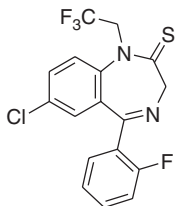
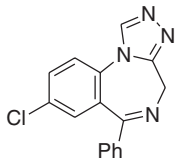
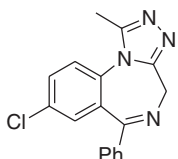
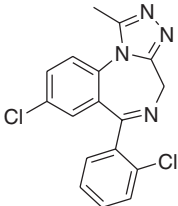
1. Sternbach, L.H. (1979) The benzodiazepine story. *J. Med. Chem.*, **22**, 1–7.

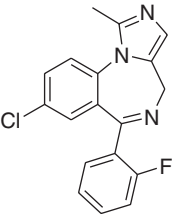
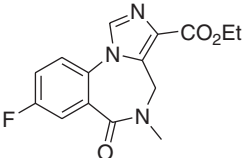
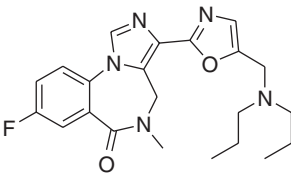
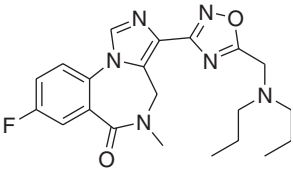
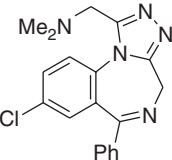
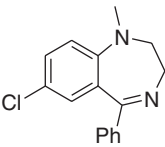
Table 65.1 Benzodiazepines and related compounds. V in l kg^{-1} , CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{kg}^{-1}$, and Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | |
|---|---|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–30 h F 95% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 295.3 PSA 78.5 \AA^2 $\log P$ 2.31 | NIMETAZEPAM Anticonvulsant, muscle relaxant; Metabolism: hydroxylation (C-3), reduction of NO_2 to NH_2 , then N-acetylation, and N-demethylation (slowest reaction) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 26 ± 3 h F $78 \pm 16\%$ pb $87 \pm 1\%$ ur $<1\%$ | V 1.9 ± 0.3 CL 0.86 ± 0.12 Mwt 281.3 PSA 87.3 \AA^2 $\log P$ 2.1 | NITRAZEPAM Anticonvulsant, hypnotic; Metabolism: reduction of NO_2 to NH_2 , then N-acetylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15 ± 5 h F 85% pb 77–79% ur $<1\%$ | V 3.3 ± 0.6 CL/F 3.5 ± 0.4 Mwt 313.3 PSA 78.5 \AA^2 $\log P$ 2.1 | FLUNITRAZEPAM Hypnotic Metabolism: reduction of NO_2 to NH_2 , N-demethylation, hydroxylation of CH_2 |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 23 ± 5 h F $98 \pm 31\%$ pb $86 \pm 0.5\%$ ur $<1\%$ | V 3.2 ± 1.1 CL/F 1.55 ± 0.28 Mwt 315.7 PSA 87.3 \AA^2 $\log P$ 2.8 | CLONAZEPAM Anticonvulsant Metabolism: reduction of NO_2 to NH_2 , then N-acetylation, hydroxylation of CH_2 |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 43 ± 12 h F $100 \pm 14\%$ pb 99% ur $<1\%$ | V 1.1 ± 0.3 CL 0.38 ± 0.06 Mwt 284.8 PSA 32.7 \AA^2 $\log P$ 2.7 | DIAZEPAM (VALIUM) Anxiolytic, muscle relaxant Metabolism: N-demethylation, hydroxylation of CH_2 group, then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15 ± 4 h F – pb 70–90% ur – | V 6.7 ± 2.1 CL – Mwt 288.8 PSA 32.7 \AA^2 $\log P$ 2.63 | TETRAZEPAM Muscle relaxant Metabolism: N-demethylation, allylic hydroxylation, then aromatization of cyclohexenyl to diazepam and nordazepam |

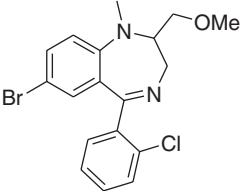
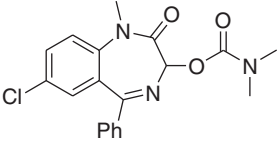
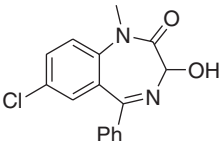
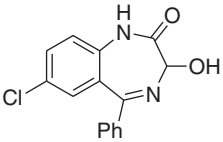
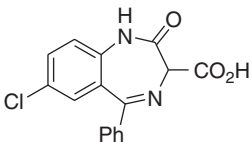
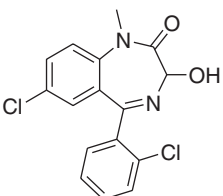
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|---|--|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 73±33 h F 99±6% pb 97.5% ur <1% | V 0.78±0.12 CL 0.14±0.05 Mwt 270.7 PSA 41.5 Å ² log P 2.9 | NORDAZEPAM Anxiolytic Metabolite of diazepam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 23–48 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 302.7 PSA 32.7 Å ² log P 2.9 | FLUDIAZEPAM Anxiolytic Metabolism: N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 74±24 h F – pb 96.6% ur <1% | V 22±7 CL/ F 4.5±2.3 Mwt 288.7 PSA 41.5 Å ² log P 2.60 | N-DESALKYLFLURAZEPAM Main metabolite of flurazepam, fludiazepam, and flutoprazepam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15±5 h F 60% pb 70% ur 2.3% | V 1.1±0.3 CL 0.7±0.1 Mwt 316.2 PSA 54.4 Å ² log P 2.4 | BROMAZEPAM Anxiolytic Metabolism: hydroxylation of CH ₂ , then O-glucuronidation, amide and imine hydrolysis, aromatic hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3±0.7 h F – pb – ur 0% | V 14.4±5.1 CL/ F 140±100 Mwt 324.8 PSA 32.7 Å ² log P 3.6 | PRAZEPAM Anxiolytic Prodrug of nordazepam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <6 h F 85±5% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 342.8 PSA 32.7 Å ² log P 3.7 | FLUTOPRAZEPAM Anxiolytic Metabolism: N-decyclopropylmethylation |

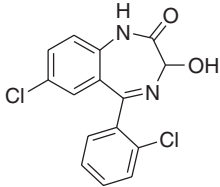
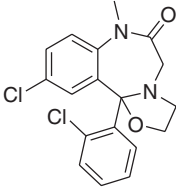
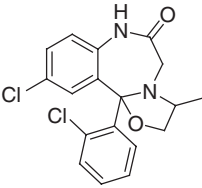
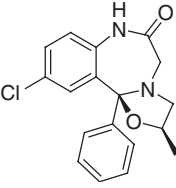
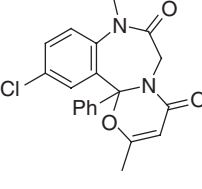
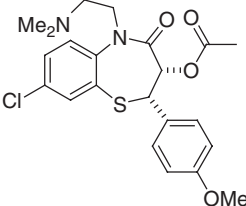
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| | | | |
|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–5 h F 40–50% pb 94–97% ur – | V 0.8–1.7 CL 4–9 Mwt 308.8 PSA 32.7 Å ² log P 2.9 | PINAZEPAM Anxiolytic Metabolism: hydroxylation of CH ₂ CO; in rat liver microsomes depropargylation is eight times faster than demethylation of diazepam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15±1 h F – pb – ur – | V 1 CL 6.2 Mwt 352.7 PSA 32.7 Å ² log P 3.54 | HALAZEPAM Anxiolytic Metabolism: N-dealkylation to nordazepam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–36 h F 29–35% pb >95% ur – | V 8.6 CL 13.7 Mwt 386.8 PSA 47.7 Å ² log P 4.03 | QUAZEPAM Sedative, hypnotic Metabolites: N-desalkylflurazepam, 2-oxoquazepam ($t_{1/2}$ 40 h), and N-desalkylquazepam ($t_{1/2}$ 70–75 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16±6 h F 98%* pb 93% ur <5% | V 3.1* CL 18* Mwt 294.7 PSA 43.1 Å ² log P 2.52 | ESTAZOLAM *mice Sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: hydroxylation of triazole and CH ₂ , aromatic 4-hydroxylation, then glucuronidation, hydrolysis of imine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13±2 h F 88±16% pb 71±3% ur 20% | V 0.72±0.12 CL 0.74±0.14 Mwt 308.8 PSA 43.1 Å ² log P 2.3 | ALPRAZOLAM Anxiolytic metabolism: hydroxylation of CH ₃ , and CH ₂ , imine hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3±1 h F 44% pb 90±2% ur 2% | V/F 1.1±0.4 CL/ F 5.6±2.0 Mwt 343.2 PSA 43.1 Å ² log P 2.9 | TRIAZOLAM Sedative, hypnotic; CYP3A substrate Metabolism: hydroxylation of CH ₃ and CH ₂ ; withdrawn in 1991 in the United Kingdom |

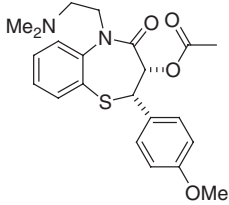
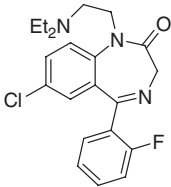
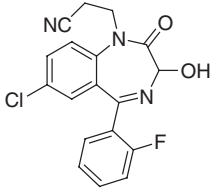
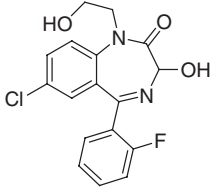
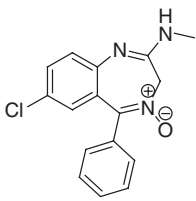
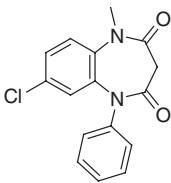
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|---|--|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.9±0.6 h F 44±17% pb 95±2% ur 56±26% | V 1.1±6 CL 6.6±1.8 Mwt 325.8 PSA 30.2 Å ² $\log P$ 3.1 | MIDAZOLAM Anesthetic for iv dosing Metabolism: hydroxylation of CH ₃ and CH ₂ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9±0.2 h F 20% pb 42% ur <1% | V 1.0±0.2 CL 17±3 Mwt 303.3 PSA 64.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.15 | FLUMAZENIL Benzodiazepine antagonist Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F – pb – ur – | V 4 CL 28 Mwt 411.5 PSA 62.5 Å ² $\log P$ 2.39 | RO 48-8684 Sedative Metabolism: N-depropylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5 h F – pb – ur – | V 3 CL 27 Mwt 412.5 PSA 80.3 Å ² $\log P$ 2.53 | RO 48-6791 Sedative Metabolism: N-depropylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.9±0.3 h F 33–45% pb 64–75% ur <2% | V 1.6 CL 6.8 Mwt 351.8 PSA 46.3 Å ² $\log P$ 1.27 | ADINAZOLAM Antidepressant; Main metabolite: N-desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 2–8 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3±2 h F – pb >95% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 270.8 PSA 15.6 Å ² $\log P$ 3.4 | MEDAZEPAM Anxiolytic Active metabolite: diazepam and N-desmethylmedazepam ($t_{1/2}$ 40–80 h) |

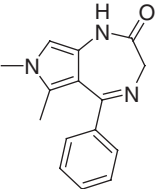
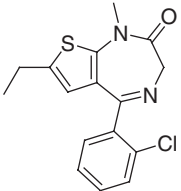
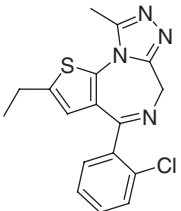
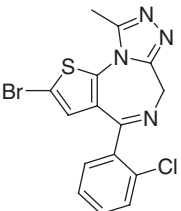
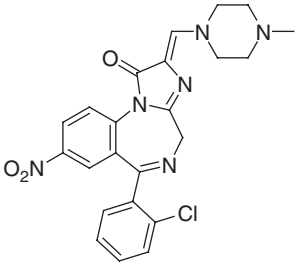
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|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11–23 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 393.7 PSA 24.8 Å ² log P 3.86 | METACLOZEPAM Anxiolytic Metabolism: N- and O-demethylation, aromatic hydroxylation, imine hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–11 h F >90% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 371.8 PSA 62.2 Å ² log P 2.6 | CAMAZEPAM Anxiolytic Metabolism: hydrolysis of carbamate, N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±6 h F 91% pb 97.6% ur <1% | V 0.95±0.34 CL 1.0±0.3 Mwt 300.8 PSA 52.9 Å ² log P 2.1 | TEMAZEPAM Sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: N-demethylation, O-glucuronidation; withdrawn in 1999 in Sweden and Norway for risk of abuse |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8.0±2.4 h F 97±11% pb 99±2% ur <1% | V 0.6±0.2 CL 1.05±0.36 Mwt 286.7 PSA 61.7 Å ² log P 1.8 | OXAZEPAM Anxiolytic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.0±0.9 h F 5% pb – ur <1% | V/F 0.33±0.17 CL/F 1.8±0.2 Mwt 314.7 PSA 78.8 Å ² log P 2.54 | CLORAZEPIC ACID Anxiolytic; prodrug of nordazepam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10 h F 80% pb 85% ur – | V 4.6 CL 4 Mwt 335.2 PSA 52.9 Å ² log P 2.7 | LORMETAZEPAM Sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: O-glucuronidation, N-demethylation |

| | | | |
|---|--|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14±5 h F 93±10% pb 91±2% ur <1% | V 1.3±0.2 CL 1.1±0.4 Mwt 321.2 PSA 61.7 Å ² $\log P$ 2.5 | LORAZEPAM Anxiolytic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 66±11 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 363.2 PSA 32.8 Å ² $\log P$ 3.9 | CLOXAZOLAM Anxiolytic Prodrug of chlorodesmethyldiazepam Metabolism: twofold N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 70 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 363.2 PSA 41.6 Å ² $\log P$ 4.4 | MEXAZOLAM Anxiolytic Metabolism: N-dealkylation to chlorodesmethyldiazepam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–20 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 328.8 PSA 41.6 Å ² $\log P$ 3.8 | OXAZOLAM Sedative, anxiolytic, anticonvulsant Metabolism: N-dealkylation to desmethyldiazepam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F – pb 93% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 368.8 PSA 49.9 Å ² $\log P$ 0.51 | KETAZOLAM Sedative, anxiolytic, anticonvulsant Active metabolite: N-desmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 52 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–16 h F 35–50% pb – ur – | V 9.8 CL 13.8 Mwt 449.0 PSA 84.4 Å ² $\log P$ 4.46 | CLENTIAZEM Antihypertensive Metabolism: deacetylation, N-demethylation, O-demethylation, aromatic hydroxylation (ortho to methoxy) |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|--|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–6 h F 44±10% pb 78±3% ur 0.2–4.0% | V 3.1–1.2 CL 12±4 Mwt 414.5 PSA 84.4 Å ² $\log P$ 4.73 | DILTIAZEM Antianginal, antihypertensive, antiarrhythmic Metabolites: desacetyl ($t_{1/2}$ 9±2 h), <i>N</i> -monodesmethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 7.5±1.0 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F 83% pb 75% ur <1% | V 3.4 CL 4.5±2.3 Mwt 387.9 PSA 35.9 Å ² $\log P$ 3.6 | FLURAZEPAM Sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: <i>N</i> -dealkylation to 2-hydroxyethyl and <i>N</i> -desalkylflurazepam, hydroxylation of CH ₂ to doxefazepam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 357.8 PSA 76.7 Å ² $\log P$ 1.7 | CINOLAZEPAM Sedative, anxiolytic, anticonvulsant Metabolism: <i>N</i> -dealkylation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–4 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 348.8 PSA 73.1 Å ² $\log P$ 1.6 | DOXEFAZEPAM Sedative, anxiolytic Metabolism: glucuronidation, <i>N</i> -dealkylation, oxidation of CH ₂ OH to CO ₂ H, and ring contraction to quinazolinone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10±3 h F 100% pb 97±2% ur <1% | V 0.30±0.03 CL 0.54±0.49 Mwt 299.8 PSA 53.1 Å ² $\log P$ 2.1 | CHLORDIAZEPOXIDE Sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation, hydrolysis of amidine to amide (demoxepam; $t_{1/2}$ 14–95 h), hydrolysis and reduction to desmethyldiazepam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20±10 h F 90% pb 85–90% ur <1% | V 0.9–1.5 CL 0.35–0.65 Mwt 300.7 PSA 40.6 Å ² $\log P$ 1.25 | CLOBAZAM Anxiolytic, anticonvulsant Metabolism: <i>N</i> -demethylation (to <i>N</i> -desmethyl, $t_{1/2}$ 36–46 h), aromatic 4-hydroxylation |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7.9±1.2 h F – pb – ur 63% | V – CL – Mwt 253.3 PSA 46.4 Å ² log P 1.31 | PREMAZEPAM Anxiolytic, sedative Metabolism: N-demethylation, hydroxylation of CH ₃ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13±5 h F 2.5% pb 99% ur – | V 3–4 CL 9–10 Mwt 318.8 PSA 60.9 Å ² log P 3.95 | CLOTIAZEPAM Anxiolytic, sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: N-demethylation, hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–15 h F 87% pb 93% ur <3% | V – CL – Mwt 342.9 PSA 71.3 Å ² log P 2.20 | ETIZOLAM Anxiolytic, sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: hydroxylation of ethyl to 1-hydroxyethyl and of CH ₃ , then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6±2 h F 70±22% pb 90% ur <1% | V 0.7 CL 1.7±0.4 Mwt 393.7 PSA 71.3 Å ² log P 2.46 | BROTIZOLAM Anxiolytic, sedative, hypnotic Metabolism: hydroxylation of CH ₃ , and CH ₂ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7±2 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 464.9 PSA 97.3 Å ² log P 0.60 | LOPRAZOLAM Anxiolytic, sedative Metabolism: formation of piperazine <i>N</i> -oxide ($t_{1/2}$ 12–16 h), reduction of NO ₂ to NH ₂ |

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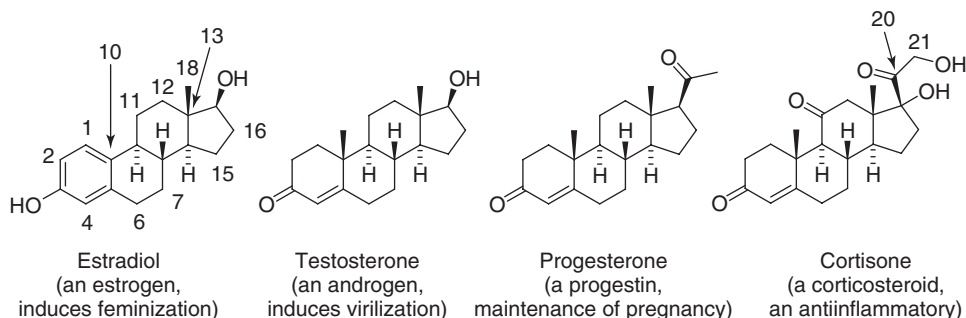
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 0.84 CL 9.6 Mwt 489.6 PSA 130 Å ² log P 3.78 | BMS-214662 Farnesyltransferase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolism: hydroxylation, glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 54–92 h F 37–44% pb 32% ur 10–25% | V 4.2 CL 1.9 Mwt 399.4 PSA 83.1 Å ² log P 1.07 | COLCHICINE Gout suppressant |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.7–3.5 h F – pb – ur – | V 8–79 CL – Mwt 382.5 PSA 61.6 Å ² log P 3.64 | TOFISOPAM Anxiolytic Metabolism: sequential O-demethylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4–7 h F – pb 67–88% ur – | V – CL 6.7 Mwt 337.4 PSA 77.2 Å ² log P 1.30 | TALAMPANEL Anticonvulsant Metabolism: N-acetylation, reductive cleavage of acetal to 7- <i>O</i> -methylcatechol, glucuronidation |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

66

Steroids

Natural steroids are endogenous hormones of short plasma half-life, low oral bioavailability, and usually, little therapeutic value [1] (Scheme 66.1). Although these lipophilic compounds are quickly and completely absorbed from the gastrointestinal (GI) tract, first-pass metabolism is too extensive for oral dosing. Chemically modified steroids (agonists or antagonists), however, can show much improved pharmacokinetic properties (Table 66.1).



Scheme 66.1 Biological activities of steroids.

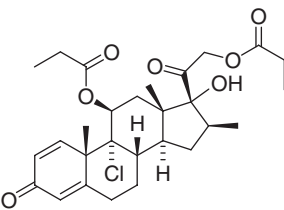
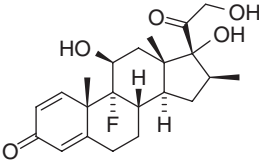
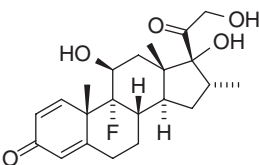
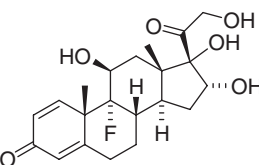
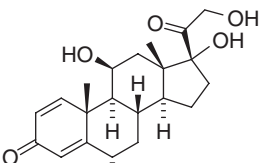
Estrogens and progestins are mainly used as contraceptives for the treatment of female infertility and in hormone replacement therapy, for example, for the treatment of menopausal symptoms. Androgens are used as anabolics or in hormone replacement therapy. The growth of hormone-responsive neoplasms can be suppressed by antiestrogens or antiandrogens. Corticosteroids (e.g., cortisone) are mainly used as systemic or topical antiinflammatories [2]. A number of nonsteroids may also interact with steroid receptors as agonists or antagonists.

The main phase I metabolic transformations of steroids include the reduction/oxidation of ketones/alcohols, aromatic and allylic hydroxylation, hydrogenation of alkenes (mainly enones), and hydrolysis of esters. Phase II conjugation reactions include glucuronidation and sulfation of hydroxyl groups.

References

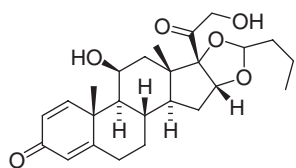
1. Sneader, W. (2000) The discovery of oestrogenic hormones. *J. Br. Menopause Soc.*, 129–133.
2. Khan, M.O.F. and Lee, H.J. (2008) Synthesis and pharmacology of anti-inflammatory steroidal antedugs. *Chem. Rev.*, **108**, 5131–5145.

Table 66.1 Steroids. V is in l kg⁻¹, CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ and Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

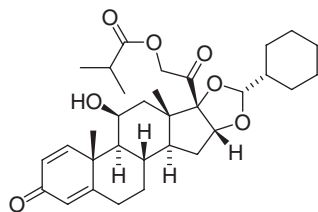
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5 h (iv) F 15–20%* pb 87% ur <10% | V 0.29 CL 36 Mwt 521.0 PSA 107 Å ² log P 4.07 | BECLOMETHASONE DIPROPIONATE Antiallergic, antiasthmatic, topical antiinflammatory Metabolism: ester hydrolysis; *17-monopropionate ($t_{1/2}$ 2.7 h) after oral administration of dipropionate |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.6 h (iv) F 80% pb 64% ur 5% | V 1.3 CL 2.8 Mwt 392.5 PSA 94.8 Å ² log P 2.03 | BETAMETHASONE Glucocorticoid Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.0±0.8 h F 78±14% pb 68±3% ur 8% | V 0.8±0.2 CL 3.7±0.9 Mwt 392.5 PSA 94.8 Å ² log P 2.03 | DEXAMETHASONE Antiinflammatory Metabolism: allylic hydroxylation, reduction of ketone to alcohol, glucuronidation, sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.4–3.6 h F 23% pb 71–79% ur Low | V 1.4–2.1 CL 9–17 Mwt 394.4 PSA 115 Å ² log P 0.53 | TRIAMCINOLONE Glucocorticoid Metabolism: oxidation of 11-alcohol to ketone, hydrogenation of 4,5-alkene |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.3–4.0 h F 80% pb 77% ur <10% | V 1.7±0.3 CL 6.1 Mwt 374.5 PSA 94.8 Å ² log P 2.17 | METHYLPREDNISOLONE Glucocorticoid, crosses bbb Metabolites: 20-β-hydroxy, oxidation of 11-hydroxy to ketone (methylprednisone) |

| | | | |
|--|--|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.9±0.4 h F – pb 74–94% ur – | V 0.8±0.1 CL 4.1±0.7 Mwt 392.9 PSA 94.8 Å ² $\log P$ 1.34 | CLOPREDNOL Glucocorticoid Metabolism: reduction of noncyclic ketone to alcohol |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4.4–5.8 h* F <1% pb 98–99% ur Low | V 4.4–4.7 CL 12 Mwt 427.4 PSA 74.6 Å ² $\log P$ 2.68 | MOMETASONE *iv Furoate: F <1% Antiinflammatory Metabolism: reduction of ketone, formation of epoxide from 2-chloroethanol, allylic hydroxylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3.6±0.4 h F 80±11% pb 75±2% ur 3±2% | V 0.97±0.11 CL 3.6±0.8 Mwt 360.44* PSA 94.8 Å ² * $\log P$ 1.64* | PREDNISONE (CYCLOHEXANONE) or PREDNISOLONE* (CYCLOHEXANOL, DRAWN) Glucocorticoid Prednisone and prednisolone are interconverted <i>in vivo</i> |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3–1.9 h F 75–100% pb 90% ur <1% | V 0.3–0.6 CL 3.1–4.3 Mwt 362.5 PSA 94.8 Å ² $\log P$ 1.76 | HYDROCORTISONE, CORTISOL Glucocorticoid, crosses bbb |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2 h F – pb 95%* ur – | V 0.3* CL – Mwt 360.4 PSA 91.7 Å ² $\log P$ 1.43 | CORTISONE *acetate Glucocorticoid, antiinflammatory |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.0±0.7 h F 23±10% pb 40% ur 1.0±0.6% | V 1.3±0.7 CL 7.7±2.6 Mwt 434.5 PSA 93.1 Å ² $\log P$ 2.43 | TRIAMCINOLONE ACETONIDE Glucocorticoid Metabolism: 6-hydroxylation, oxidation to 21-carboxy, no acetal hydrolysis |

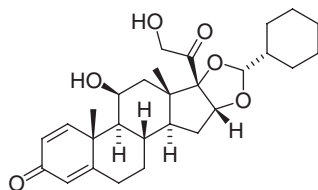
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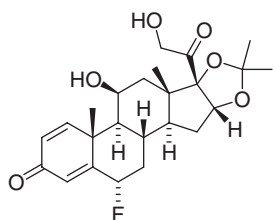
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|-----------|------------|-------|---------------------|-----------------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 2–3 h (iv) | V | 2.9±1.5 | BUDESONIDE |
| F | 12±3% | CL | 17±4 | Antiinflammatory |
| pb | 88% | Mwt | 430.5 | Metabolism: allylic |
| ur | 2% | PSA | 93.1 Å ² | hydroxylation, cyclopentane |
| | | log P | 3.20 | hydroxylation (at CH–O) |



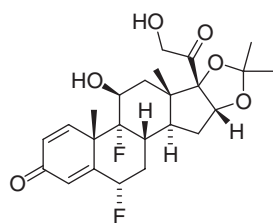
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 0.7 h | V | 2.9 | CICLESONIDE |
| F | <0.5% | CL | 39 | Antiinflammatory |
| pb | 99% | Mwt | 540.7 | High first-pass metabolism |
| ur | – | PSA | 99.1 Å ² | (ester hydrolysis) |
| | | log P | 6.13 | |



| | | | | |
|-----------|-------|-------|---------------------|---------------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 6–7 h | V | 12.1 | DES-CICLESONIDE |
| F | 1% | CL | 59 | Main active metabolite of |
| pb | 99% | Mwt | 470.6 | ciclesonide |
| ur | <20% | PSA | 93.1 Å ² | |
| | | log P | 4.14 | |



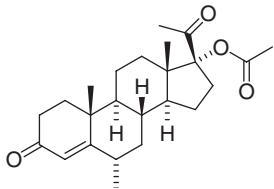
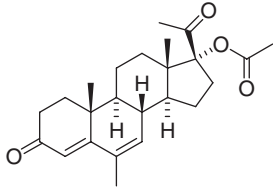
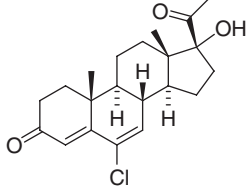
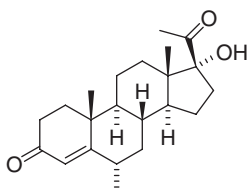
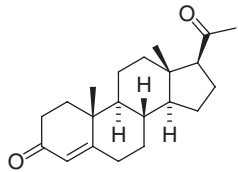
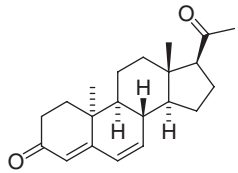
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 1.4–1.7 h* | V | 1.4–1.9 | FLUNISOLIDE |
| F | 6–10% | CL | 13.7–14.3 | *iv |
| pb | 80% | Mwt | 434.5 | Antiasthmatic |
| ur | – | PSA | 93.1 Å ² | Metabolism: displacement |
| | | log P | 2.04 | of allylic fluoride by OH |

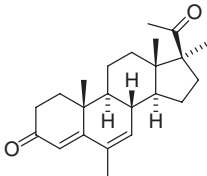
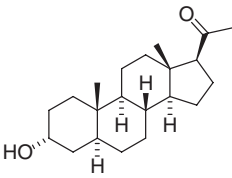
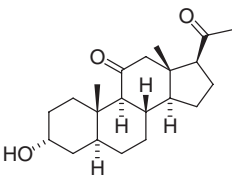
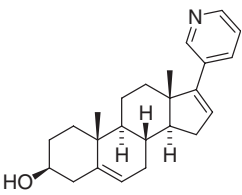
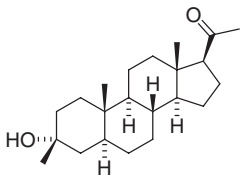
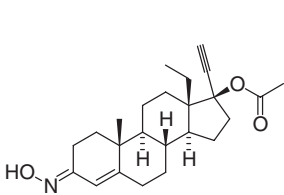


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|-----------|-----------|-------|---------------------|--------------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 1.3–1.7 h | V | – | FLUOCINOLONE |
| F | Low | CL | – | ACETONIDE |
| pb | – | Mwt | 452.5 | Topical antiinflammatory |
| ur | – | PSA | 93.1 Å ² | Acetonide: improves |
| | | log P | 2.23 | absorption by skin |

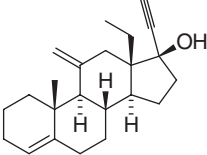
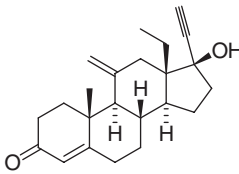
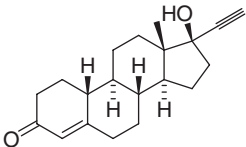
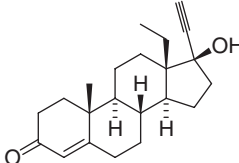
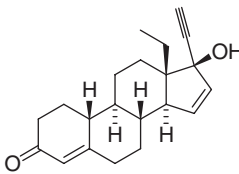
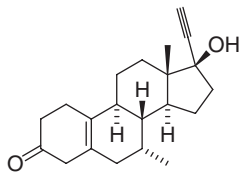
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F >90% pb 83–95% ur Low | V 1 CL 6.5 ± 2.1 Mwt 376.5 PSA 74.6 \AA^2 log P 1.83 | FLUOCORTOLONE Glucocorticoid, immunosuppressant Metabolism: elimination of fluoride, substitution of fluoride by OH, glucuronidation, sulfation, oxidation of secondary alcohol to ketone |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1–1.9 h F 68% pb 40% ur 18% | V 1.2–1.5 CL – Mwt 441.5 PSA 102 \AA^2 log P 2.05 | DEFLAZACORT Antiinflammatory Prodrug of desacetyldeflazacort; all values for metabolite |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7.8 h (iv) F <1% pb 90% ur <0.02% | V 4.2–11.1 CL 12.8–22.7 Mwt 444.5 PSA 99.9 \AA^2 log P 2.07 | FLUTICASONE Propionate: F <2% Furoate: F 1.6% Antiallergic, antiinflammatory Metabolism: hydrolysis of ester, displacement of allylic fluoride by OH |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 30–40 h F 88–100% pb 95% ur 33% | V 20 CL 3.6 Mwt 416.9 PSA 60.4 \AA^2 log P 4.22 | CYPROTERONE ACETATE Antiandrogen, treatment of acne Metabolite: 15- β -hydroxy- and 3- α -hydroxycypoterone |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 10% pb – ur – | V 4 CL – Mwt 370.5 PSA 60.4 \AA^2 log P 3.00 | ELCOMETRINE Contraceptive |

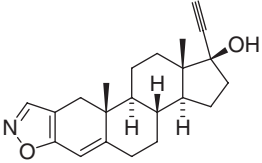
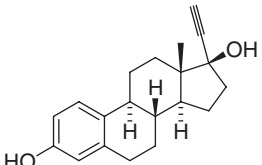
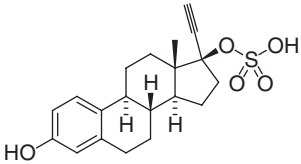
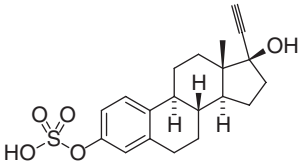
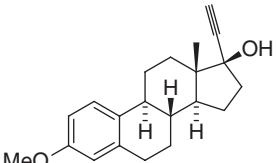
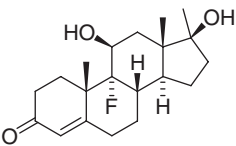
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 40–60 h* F <10% pb 86–95% ur 1% | V 3.7 CL – Mwt 386.5 PSA 60.4 Å ² log P 4.17 | MEDROXYPROGESTERONE ACETATE *im: 2 wk Crosses bbb Metabolism: reduction of enone to enol, then glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15–20 h F – pb – ur 50–70% | V – CL – Mwt 384.5 PSA 60.4 Å ² log P 3.75 | MEGESTROL ACETATE Progestogen, appetite stimulant Metabolism: hydroxylation of cyclopentyl-CH ₃ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25–39 h F 24% pb >95% ur – | V 2–3 CL – Mwt 362.9 PSA 54.4 Å ² log P 3.27 | CHLORMADINONE Contraceptive Metabolism: reduction of cyclohexenone to cyclohexenol, 2-hydroxylation; withdrawn in 1972 because of carcinogenicity |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–17 h F – pb 86–90% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 344.5 PSA 54.4 Å ² log P 3.58 | MEDROXYPROGESTERONE Progestogen |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 20 min F <20% pb 95–98% ur – | V 0.3–0.5 CL – Mwt 314.5 PSA 34.1 Å ² log P 3.83 | PROGESTERONE Progestogen, crosses bbb Metabolism: hydrogenation of alkene and of enone to enol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–7 h F 28% pb 97% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 312.5 PSA 34.1 Å ² log P 3.55 | DYDROGESTERONE Progestogen Active metabolite: 20 α -dihydrodihydroprogesterone ($t_{1/2}$ 14–17 h) |

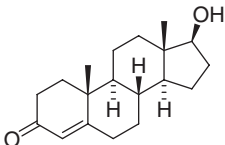
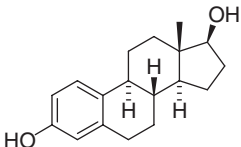
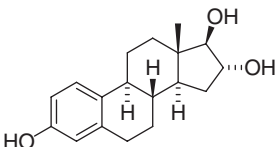
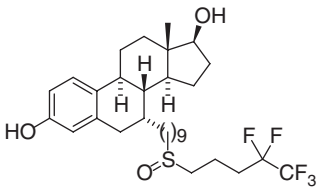
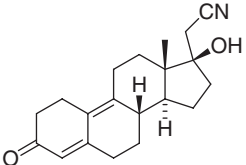
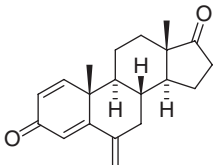
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 36 h F 100% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 340.5 PSA 34.1 Å ² log P 4.35 | MEDROGESTONE Progestogen |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.7 h (iv) F Low pb 99% ur Negligible | V 2 CL 22 Mwt 318.5 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 5.04 | ELTANOLONE, PREGNANOLONE Local anesthetic Metabolism: glucuronidation, reduction of ketone to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.1–0.5 h F – pb 40% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 332.5 PSA 54.4 Å ² log P 3.28 | ALPHAXALONE Sedative, anesthetic, anticonvulsant Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–14 h F Low pb >99% ur – | V – CL 79 Mwt 349.5 PSA 33.1 Å ² log P 5.70 | ABIRATERONE CYP17 inhibitor, oncolytic; prodrug: acetate Metabolism: N-oxidation, O-sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 37–70 h F – pb – ur – | V/F 3.2* CL – Mwt 332.5 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 5.42 | GANAXOLONE *rat GABA receptor modulator, sedative, antiepileptic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 25 h* F 22%** pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 369.5 PSA 58.9 Å ² log P 5.13 | NORGESTIMATE *desacetyl metabolite **levonorgestrel on oral dosing of norgestimate Not detectable in plasma after oral dosing Metabolism: O-deacetylation, hydrolysis of oxime (to levonorgestrel) |

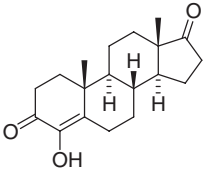
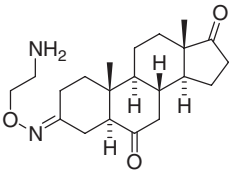
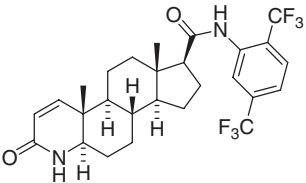
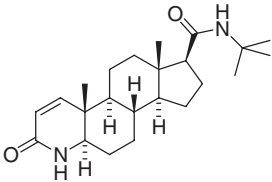
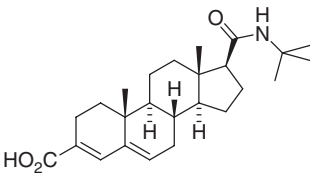
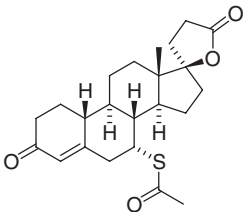
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ – F 62–75%* pb – ur – | V – CL 2.4 Mwt 310.5 PSA 20.2 Å ² log P 5.35 | DESOGESTREL Oral contraceptive; rapid oxidation by CYP2C9 to etonogestrel; *etonogestrel on oral administration of desogestrel |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24–30 h F 82% pb 96–99% ur – | V 7.2 CL 2.6 Mwt 324.5 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 3.32 | ETONOGESTREL, 3-KETODESOGESTREL Active metabolite of desogestrel |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8.5±2.6 h F 64±14% pb 94±3% ur <4% | V 3.6±1.7 CL 5.9±1.1 Mwt 298.4 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 2.86 | NORETHINDRONE, NORETHISTERONE Progestogen, oral contraceptive Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol, hydrogenation of alkene |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 15±3 h F 94% pb 37±7% ur 52±8% | V 1.7 CL 1.5±0.6 Mwt 312.5 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 3.37 | LEVONORGESTREL Progestogen, oral contraceptive Metabolism: hydrogenation of ketone and alkene, 16-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–18 h F 100% pb 98–99% ur <1% | V 0.24–1.2 CL 0.8–0.9 Mwt 310.4 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 2.02 | GESTODENE Oral contraceptive, progestogen Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.7–6.4 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 312.5 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 3.52 | TIBOLONE Synthetic steroid for hormone replacement therapy Metabolism: reduction of ketone to active 3- α ($t_{1/2}$ 27 h, monkey) and 3- β ($t_{1/2}$ 17 h, monkey) hydroxy metabolites |

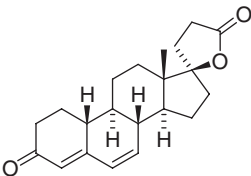
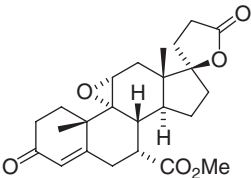
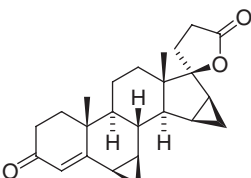
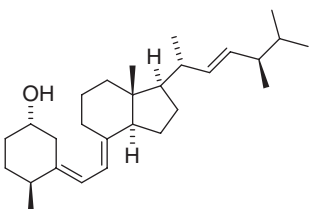
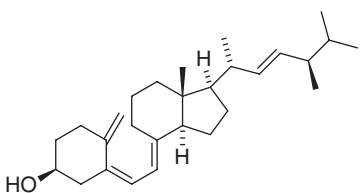
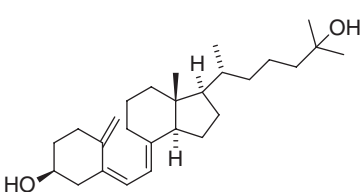
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24 h F Low pb – ur – | V 3.4 CL – Mwt 337.5 PSA 46.3 Å ² log P 4.94 | DANAZOL Antigonadotropin Metabolism: reductive cleavage of isoxazole to 2-hydroxymethylethisterone and ethisterone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10±6 h F 51±9% pb 95–98% ur 1–5% | V 3.5±1.0 CL 5.4±2.1 Mwt 296.4 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P 4.11 | ETHINYL ESTRADIOL Estrogen, oral contraceptive Metabolism: aromatic 2-hydroxylation, then O-methylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9.3 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 0.61 CL 1.3 Mwt 376.5 PSA 83.8 Å ² log P 1.33 | ETHINYL ESTRADIOL-17-SULFATE Metabolite of ethinyl estradiol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8.4 h (iv) F – pb 99% ur – | V 2.3 CL 4.7 Mwt 376.5 PSA 92.2 Å ² log P 3.29 | ETHINYL ESTRADIOL-3-SULFATE Metabolite of ethinyl estradiol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8–1.0 h F – pb – ur – | V 2 CL – Mwt 310.4 PSA 29.5 Å ² log P 4.94 | MESTRANOL Prodrug of ethinyl estradiol, contraceptive Metabolism: O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–10 h F <44% pb 99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 336.4 PSA 57.5 Å ² log P 2.27 | FLUOXYMESTERONE Androgen Metabolism: hydrogenation of ketone and C=C double bond, hydroxylation |

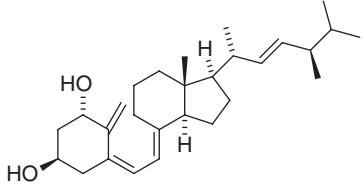
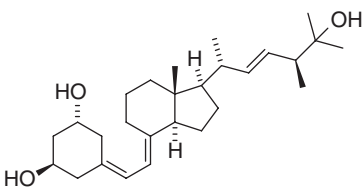
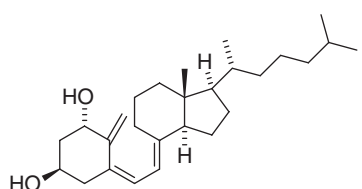
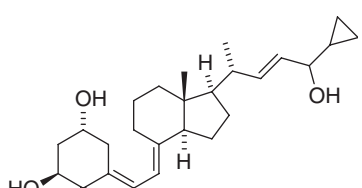
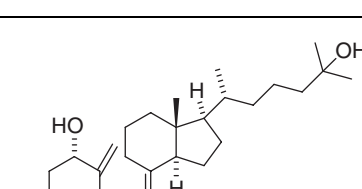
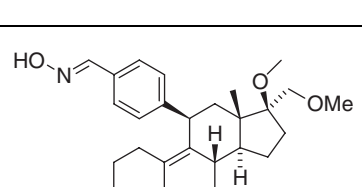
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h F 4.3% pb 98% ur – | V 1 CL 12.9 Mwt 288.4 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 3.18 | TESTOSTERONE Natural androgen, crosses bbb Metabolism: hydrogenation of alkene |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h F 3–5% pb 97–99% ur – | V 1.0 CL 30 Mwt 272.4 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P 4.15 | ESTRADIOL Natural estrogen, crosses bbb; active metabolites: estrone, estriol; prodrug estradiol valerate: same oral bioavailability as estradiol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–10 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 288.4 PSA 60.7 Å ² log P 2.53 | ESTRIOL Natural estrogen Metabolites: 16-hydroxyestrone, glucuronides |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 40–50 d* F Low pb 99% ur <1% | V 3–5 CL Mwt 606.8 PSA 76.7 Å ² log P 7.92 | FULVESTRANT *im Antineoplastic Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation, glucuronidation, sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–9 h F 91% pb 90% ur <1% | V 0.6 CL 0.7 Mwt 311.4 PSA 61.1 Å ² log P 2.58 | DIENOGEST Progestogen, oral contraceptive Metabolism: hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24–27 h F 5–60% pb 90% ur <1% | V 1.8* CL/ F 147 Mwt 296.4 PSA 34.1 Å ² log P 2.43 | EXEMESTANE *dog Reductase inhibitor, antineoplastic Metabolism: reduction of cyclopentanone to cyclopentanol |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 18 min (iv) | V | 1.8 | FORMESTANE |
| | F | 20–25%* | CL | 2–3 | *im |
| | pb | 82–86% | Mwt | 302.4 | Antineoplastic |
| | ur | Negligible | PSA | 54.4 Å ² | Metabolism: |
| | | | log P | 1.79 | glucuronidation of enol, reduction of cyclohexenone to cyclohexenol, then conjugation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | <1 h | V | 2 | ISTAROXIME |
| | F | – | CL | 60 | Inotropic, lusitropic |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 360.5 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 81.8 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 1.89 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | >240 h | V | 4.6–7.7 | DUTASTERIDE |
| | F | 40–94% | CL | 0.15 | 5 α -Reductase inhibitor |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 528.5 | Metabolism: hydroxylation |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 58.2 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 5.61 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 7.9±2.5 h | V | 1.1±0.2 | FINASTERIDE |
| | F | 63±21% | CL | 2.3±0.8 | 5 α -Reductase inhibitor, |
| | pb | 93% | Mwt | 372.5 | CYP3A4 substrate |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 58.2 Å ² | Metabolism: |
| | | | log P | 3.83 | CH ₃ -hydroxylation, then oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 26 h | V | 0.54 | EPRISTERIDE |
| | F | 93% | CL | 0.33 | 5 α -Reductase inhibitor for |
| | pb | 97% | Mwt | 399.6 | treatment of benign |
| | ur | – | PSA | 66.4 Å ² | prostatic hypertrophy |
| | | | log P | 5.34 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.4 h | V | 1.8 | SPIRONOLACTONE |
| | F | >90% | CL | 4.2±1.7 | Diuretic |
| | pb | >90% | Mwt | 416.6 | Metabolism: deacetylation, |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 85.7 Å ² | then S-methylation, |
| | | | log P | 3.15 | elimination of thioacetyl (to yield diene = canrenone) |

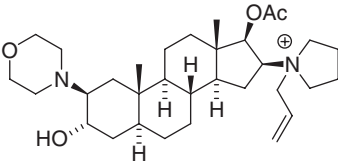
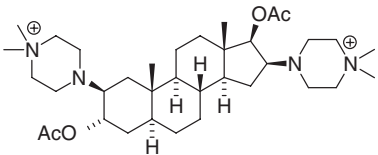
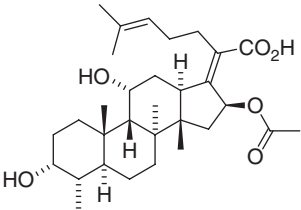
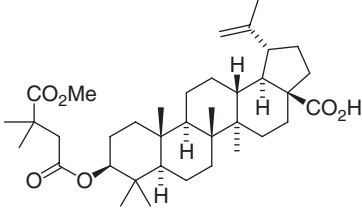
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.9±1.2 h F 25±9% pb – ur – | V – CL 4.2±1.7 Mwt 340.5 PSA 43.4 Å ² log P 3.51 | CANRENONE Diuretic Metabolite of spironolactone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–6 h F – pb 49% ur <2% | V 0.6–1.3 CL 2.6 Mwt 414.5 PSA 82.2 Å ² log P 1.05 | EPLERENONE Antihypertensive Metabolism: lactone hydrolysis, ester hydrolysis, 6β- and 21-hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 35–39 h F 76–85% pb 95–98% ur Negligible | V 3.7±4.2 CL 1.2–1.5 Mwt 366.5 PSA 43.4 Å ² log P 3.39 | DROSPIRENONE Progestogen Metabolism: ring-opening of lactone, hydrogenation of alkene, sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11–13 h F – pb >99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 398.7 PSA 20.2 Å ² log P 9.66 | DIHYDROTACHYSTEROL Vitamin D analog Metabolism: dihydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 19–48 h F 55–99% pb >99.8% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 396.7 PSA 20.2 Å ² log P 9.15 | ERGOCALCIFEROL , Vitamin D ₂ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–22 d F – pb 98% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 400.6 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P 7.08 | CALCIFEDIOL Calcium regulator Metabolite: calcitriol |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 32–96 h F 42% pb >99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 412.7 PSA 40.5 Å ² $\log P$ 7.70 | DOXERCALCIFEROL, 1 α -HYDROXYVITAMIN D ₂ Vitamin D ₂ analog Metabolite: 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D ₂ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–15 h F 72% pb >99% ur 0% | V 0.4 CL 0.9 Mwt 416.6 PSA 60.7 Å ² $\log P$ 5.83 | PARICALCITOL Vitamin D analog Metabolism: hydroxylation, dihydroxylation of olefins, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3 h F 71% pb >99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 400.6 PSA 40.5 Å ² $\log P$ 7.64 | ALFACALCIDOL, 1- HYDROXYCHOLECALCIFEROL Vitamin D analog Metabolism: hydroxylation to calcitriol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <2 h F 5–6% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 412.6 PSA 60.7 Å ² $\log P$ 5.43 | CALCIPOTRIOL Vitamin D analog for treatment of psoriasis Metabolism: oxidation of cyclopropylmethanol to ketone, then hydrogenation of enone to saturated ketone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–6 h F 62% pb >99% ur – | V 0.2–0.4* CL 6–21* Mwt 416.6 PSA 60.7 Å ² $\log P$ 5.63 | CALCITRIOL, VITAMIN D ₃ *dog |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.0–4.9 h F – pb – ur <0.2% | V – CL – Mwt 449.6 PSA 68.1 Å ² $\log P$ 4.11 | ASOPRISNIL Progesterone receptor modulator; active metabolite: $t_{1/2}$: 4–5 h; further metabolism: O-demethylation |

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| | $t_{1/2}$ 32±6 h* F 56% pb 97–99% ur – | V – CL 20 Mwt 475.6 PSA 63.7 Å ² log P 4.48 | ULIPRISTAL ACETATE *ulipristal Contraceptive Metabolism: deacetylation to ulipristal, N-demethylation, hydroxylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 15–48 h F 40–70% pb 94–99% ur Negligible | V 0.4–0.7 CL 0.7 Mwt 429.6 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P 6.19 | MIFEPRISTONE Abortifacient Metabolism: N-demethylation, hydroxylation of propargylic CH ₃ , then oxidation to aldehyde |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 16–52 h F <12% pb >99% ur – | V 4.7–6.8 CL 5.6–10.5 Mwt 624.9 PSA 72.9 Å ² log P 4.89 | TIRILAZAD Lipid peroxidation inhibitor Metabolism: hydrogenation of 4–5 alkene (enone), hydroxylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.3±0.4 h F – pb 7±2% ur 67±18% | V 0.26±0.07 CL 1.8±0.4 Mwt 572.9 PSA 52.6 Å ² log P –1.62 | PANCURONIUM Neuromuscular blocking agent Metabolism: deacetylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5±0.7 h F – pb 30±9% ur 18±5% | V 0.21±0.08 CL 3.0±0.1 Mwt 557.8 PSA 55.9 Å ² log P 2.35 | VECURONIUM Neuromuscular blocking agent Metabolism: O-deacetylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F – pb 50–88% ur 8% | V 0.3–0.4 CL 5–9 Mwt 597.9 PSA 55.8 Å ² log P 2.32 | RAPACURONIUM Neuromuscular blocking agent Metabolism: O-deacetylation; withdrawn in 2001 for causing fatal bronchospasm |

| | | | | | |
|--|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.2–3.4 h | V | 0.18–0.28 | ROCURONIUM Neuromuscular blocking agent Metabolism: deacetylation |
| | F | – | CL | 2.8–4.0 | |
| | pb | 25% | Mwt | 529.8 | |
| | ur | 9–22% | PSA | 59.0 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 0.73 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.5±1.5 h | V | 0.35±0.08 | PIPECURONIUM , PIPECURIUM Neuromuscular blocking agent Metabolism: deacetylation |
| | F | – | CL | 2.1±0.5 | |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 602.9 | |
| | ur | 37–41% | PSA | 59.1 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | –3.66 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 4–15 h | V | 0.3 | FUSIDIC ACID Antibiotic Metabolism: oxidation of allylic CH ₃ groups, glucuronidation |
| | F | 91% | CL | – | |
| | pb | 98–99% | Mwt | 516.7 | |
| | ur | <0.1% | PSA | 104 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 5.76 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 56–70 h | V | 0.2 | BEVIRIMAT *rat HIV-1 maturation inhibitor Metabolism: glucuronidation |
| | F | 22–24%* | CL | 0.05 | |
| | pb | >99.5% | Mwt | 584.8 | |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 101 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 10.2 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL , clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier; GABA, γ -aminobutyric acid.

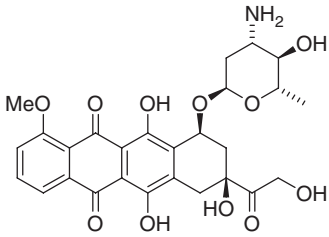
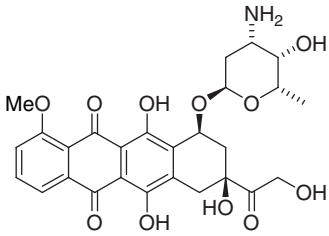
67

Anthracyclines

Tetracycline antibiotics, produced by *Streptomyces aureofaciens* and *Streptomyces rimosus*, are active against a broad spectrum of bacteria. The first tetracycline, chlortetracycline, was introduced in 1948. These compounds inhibit bacterial protein synthesis by binding to the bacterial 30S ribosome. Being highly oxidized and heteroatom rich, tetracyclines undergo few metabolic transformations.

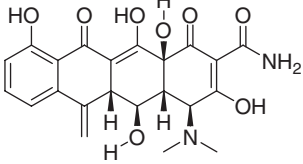
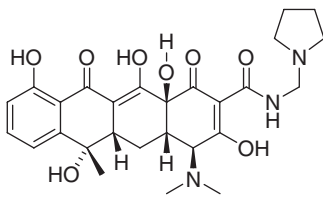
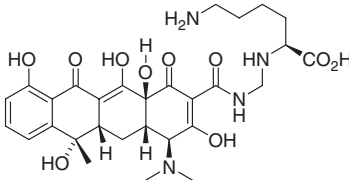
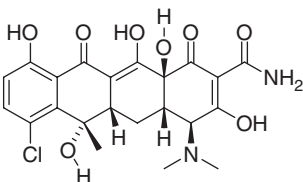
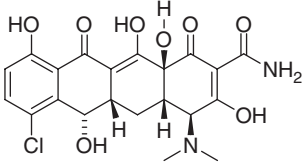
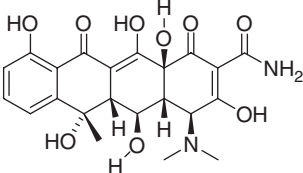
The anthracycline antibiotics daunorubicin and doxorubicin are also produced by a fungus (*Streptomyces peucetius*). These DNA intercalators have become valuable antitumor agents. However, as DNA/RNA-damaging agents, anthracyclines are mutagenic and carcinogenic as well. Because these natural products also show high cardiotoxicity, numerous analogs have been prepared, some with improved therapeutic index (Table 67.1).

Table 67.1 Anthracyclines and related compounds. *V* in l kg⁻¹; *CL* in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; *Mwt* in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|---|-------------------------|---------|--------------|--------------------|--|
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 15–45 h | <i>V</i> | 13–52 | EPIRUBICIN Antineoplastic Metabolism: glucuronidation, reduction of nonaromatic ketone to alcohol |
| | <i>F</i> | Low | <i>CL</i> | 7.1–23.8 | |
| | <i>pb</i> | 75% | <i>Mwt</i> | 543.5 | |
| | <i>ur</i> | 6–7% | <i>PSA</i> | 206 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | 0.24 | |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 26±17 h | <i>V</i> | 17±11 | DOXORUBICIN Antineoplastic Prodrug: <i>N</i> -L-leucyl-doxorubicin |
| | <i>F</i> | 5% | <i>CL</i> | 17±8 | |
| | <i>pb</i> | 70–85% | <i>Mwt</i> | 543.5 | |
| | <i>ur</i> | <7% | <i>PSA</i> | 206 Å ² | |
| | | | <i>log P</i> | 0.24 | |

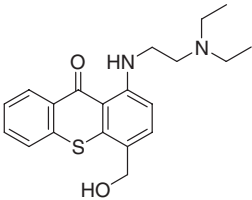
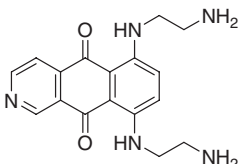
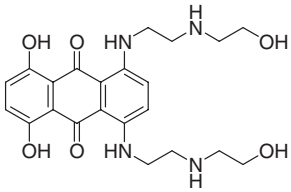
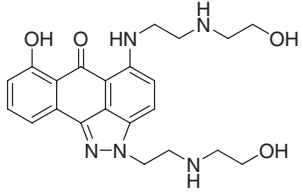
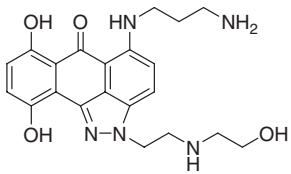
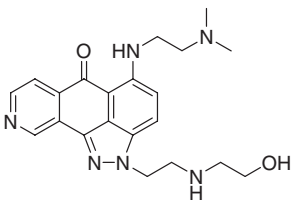
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|--|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 20–30 h F Low pb 50–60% ur 5–18% (iv) V 39 CL 15–30 Mwt 527.5 PSA 186 \AA^2 $\log P$ 0.54 | DAUNORUBICIN Antineoplastic (leukemia); does not cross bbb Metabolism: reduction of ketone, O-demethylation, glycosidic cleavage, O-sulfation, O-glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6–35 h F 18–39% pb 97% ur <5% V 37–64 CL 17–24 Mwt 497.5 PSA 177 \AA^2 $\log P$ 1.44 | IDARUBICIN, 4-DEMETHOXYDAUNORUBICIN Antineoplastic, crosses bbb Metabolite: 13-dihydro (idarubicinol, $t_{1/2}$ 81 h; pb 94%; ur < 5%) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 11 ± 6 h F $32 \pm 12\%$ pb – ur 17% (iv) V 30 ± 9 CL 17 ± 7 Mwt 541.6 PSA 166 \AA^2 $\log P$ 3.16 | MENOGARIL Antineoplastic Metabolism: N-demethylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 16 ± 6 h F 93% pb $88 \pm 5\%$ ur $41 \pm 19\%$ V 0.75 ± 0.32 CL 0.53 ± 0.18 Mwt 444.4 PSA 182 \AA^2 $\log P$ 1.78 | DOXYCYCLINE Antibacterial |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 10.6 ± 1.5 h F 77% pb $65 \pm 3\%$ ur $58 \pm 8\%$ V 1.5 ± 0.1 CL 1.67 ± 0.24 Mwt 444.4 PSA 182 \AA^2 $\log P$ 0.62 | TETRACYCLINE Antibacterial |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14 h F <60% pb 78% ur 25% | V – CL – Mwt 442.4 PSA 182 Å ² log P 1.35 | METHACYCLINE Antibacterial |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–9 h (iv) F Low pb 50% ur >50% (iv) | V 0.54 CL 0.97 Mwt 527.6 PSA 171 Å ² log P 1.66 | ROLITETRACYCLINE Antibacterial, prodrug of tetracycline |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–12 h* F 70–80%* pb 55–64%* ur 25%* | V 1.3–1.6* CL – Mwt 602.6 PSA 243 Å ² log P 0.75 | LYMECYCLINE Antibacterial Prodrug of tetracycline; prodrug can not be detected in plasma after oral dosing *tetracycline upon oral dosing of prodrug |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7 h (iv) F – pb 48% ur – | V 0.9 CL 2 Mwt 478.9 PSA 182 Å ² log P 1.32 | CHLORTETRACYCLINE Metabolism: epimerization, N-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14 h F 60–80% pb 41–50% ur 30–50% | V 1.3 CL 1.1 Mwt 464.9 PSA 182 Å ² log P 0.94 | DEMECLOCYCLINE Antibacterial |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10 h (iv) F 3% (pig) pb 10% ur – | V 1.7 CL 2.0 Mwt 460.4 PSA 202 Å ² log P 0.48 | OXYTETRACYCLINE Antibacterial Metabolism: N-demethylation, epimerization |

| | | | |
|--|---|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 16±2 h F 95–100% pb 76% ur 11±2% | V 1.3±0.2 CL 1.0±0.3 Mwt 457.5 PSA 165 Å ² $\log P$ 2.12 | MINOCYCLINE Antibacterial Metabolism: 9-hydroxylation, N-demethylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 37–67 h* F Low pb 71–89% ur 15% (iv) | V 7–9 CL 3.3–5.0 Mwt 585.7 PSA 206 Å ² $\log P$ –0.85 | TIGECYCLINE *iv Antibacterial Metabolism: glucuronidation, glycineamide hydrolysis, then N-acetylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 57 h F – pb 95% ur | V/F 0.63 CL/F 0.13 Mwt 371.3 PSA 158 Å ² $\log P$ 0.84 | METASTAT, COL-3 Matrix metalloproteinase inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3.5±1.1 h F – pb – ur 17% | V – CL – Mwt 298.3 PSA 103 Å ² $\log P$ 3.74 | AMLEXANOX Antiallergic, antiasthmatic Metabolism: hydroxylation of CH(CH ₃) ₂ , then conjugation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h F – pb – ur 18–36% | V – CL – Mwt 240.2 PSA 74.6 Å ² $\log P$ 2.91 | ALIZARIN Biological stain Metabolism: O-glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4–8 h* F 35%* pb 99%* ur 20%* | V – CL – Mwt 368.3 PSA 124 Å ² $\log P$ 3.13 | DIACEREIN, DIACETYLRHEIN *rhein upon oral dosing of diacerein Antiarthritic Metabolism: deacetylation to rhein, then glucuronidation, sulfation |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|--|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h (iv) F Low pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 356.5 PSA 77.9 Å ² log P 3.81 | HYCANTHONE Hydroxylated metabolite of lucanthone, anthelmintic Metabolism (monkey): N-deethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12–32 h F Low pb 57% ur <10% | V 10–30 CL 13–22 Mwt 325.4 PSA 123 Å ² log P 1.82 | PIXANTRONE Intercalator, topoisomerase II inhibitor, antineoplastic, immunosuppressant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–18 d F – pb 75% ur 4% | V 15–32 CL 4.7–14 Mwt 444.5 PSA 163 Å ² log P 1.55 | MITOXANTRONE Antineoplastic, does not cross bbb Metabolism: oxidation to dicarboxylic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24–51 h* F – pb 92–97% ur <8% | V 21–39 CL 12–20 Mwt 425.5 PSA 132 Å ² log P 1.99 | LOSOXANTRONE, CI 941 *iv Antineoplastic Metabolism: 2- and 4-hydroxylation of phenol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5 h (iv) F – pb – ur 5% (iv) | V 0.8 CL 34 Mwt 411.5 PSA 141 Å ² log P 1.96 | PIROZANTRONE, OXANTRAZOLE Antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 45 h (iv) F – pb – ur <10% (iv) | V 57 CL 27 Mwt 394.5 PSA 90.4 Å ² log P 1.31 | TOPIXANTRONE Antineoplastic |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier.

68

Arylacetic, Benzoic, and Related Carboxylic Acids (NSAIDs)

Aryl- and heteroarylacetic acids and the closely related 2-arylpropionic acids are an important class of nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs (NSAIDs). A large number of drugs of this type have been developed (Table 68.1), but most of them show similar biological properties and no significant advantages if compared to the rest.

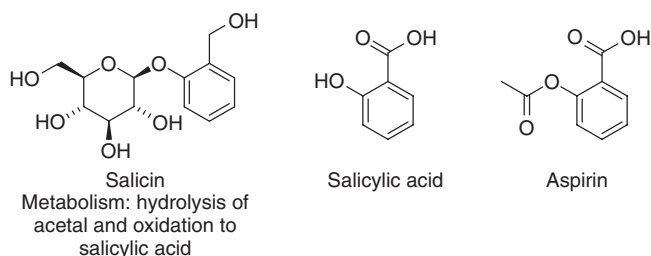
One of the first examples of this class of NSAIDs was ibuprofen, launched in 1964, which resulted from the screening of more than 600 alkanolic acids for antiinflammatory activity. Although the goal was a nonulcerogenic analgesic or antipyretic, ibuprofen was again burdened with this side effect, which seems to be inherent to all cyclooxygenase-1-inhibiting NSAIDs. Prostaglandines have a strong gastroprotective effect, and the suppression of their biosynthesis by inhibition of COX-1 (cyclooxygenase) inevitably increases the risk of gastric lesions.

Most of the drugs listed below undergo acyl glucuronidation *in vivo* and are then excreted in the urine and bile.

68.1

Salicylates

The use of willow bark extracts for the treatment of pain and fever was reported as early as 1554. Salicin (Scheme 68.1), the active glycoside of the willow bark, was isolated in pure form in 1829 and used for the treatment of rheuma until the 1950s.



Scheme 68.1

Adolph Kolbe synthesized salicylic acid in 1874 and arranged to have Carl Emil Buss (St. Gallen, Switzerland) test it in typhoid patients as an alternative to the

antiseptic phenol. Buss found that salicylic acid, despite its phenol substructure, was not antiseptic, but lowered fever instead. This discovery led to the large-scale production and marketing of salicylic acid as antipyretic.

Unfortunately, salicylic acid causes stomach irritation and has such a bad taste that it may induce vomiting. With the aim of finding a better-tasting compound, the chemist Felix Hoffmann prepared (the known) acetylsalicylic acid in 1897 at Bayer. This compound, later named aspirin, turned out to be superior to salicylic acid and became the most widely used antipyretic [1].

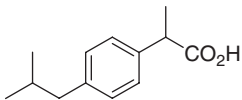
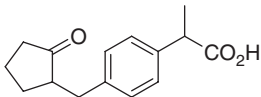
Salicylates and other nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs (NSAIDs; 4-amino-phenols, aryl/heteroarylacetic acids, and oxicams) suppress the biosynthesis of prostaglandins by inhibiting the cyclooxygenases (COX-1 and COX-2). One common side effect of all COX-1 inhibitors is their tendency to cause gastric damage (ulcers and erosions), as prostaglandins play an important role in the maintenance of the gastric mucosa. This does not seem to be the case for COX-2 inhibitors, which, however, seem to cause heart damage by increasing the viscosity of blood [2].

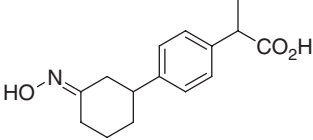
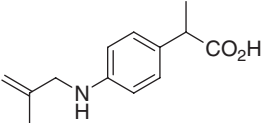
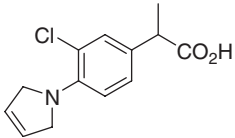
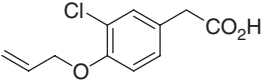
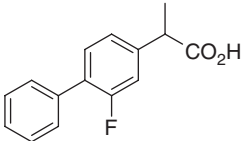
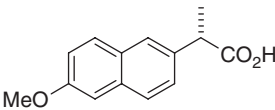
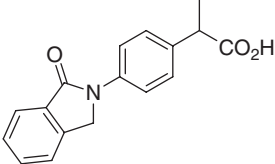
Numerous derivatives and analogs of salicylic acid have been marketed as antipyretics (Table 68.2), but none excelled aspirin. Anthranilic acid (2-aminobenzoic acid) is devoid of antipyretic effect, but 2-(arylamino)benzoic acids are potent analgetics and antiinflammatories.

References

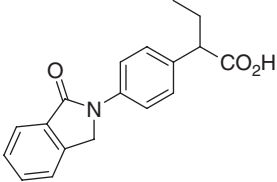
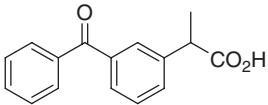
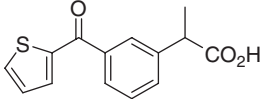
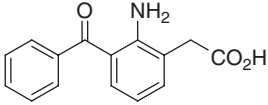
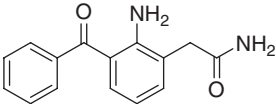
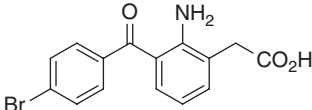
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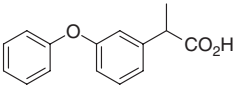
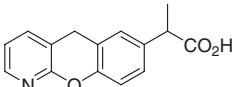
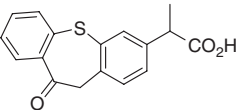
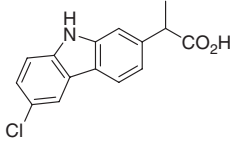
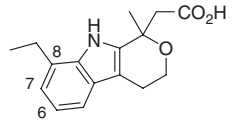
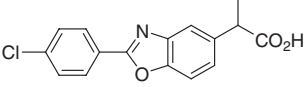
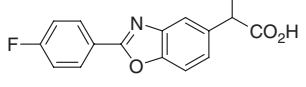
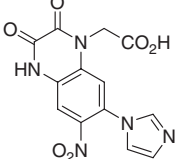
Table 68.1 Arylacetic acids, arenecarboxylic acids, and related compounds. V in l kg⁻¹, CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹, Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|-------|---------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.0±0.5 h | V/F | 0.15±0.02 | IBUPROFEN |
| | F | >80% | CL/F | 0.75±0.20 | Antiinflammatory, racemate |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 206.3 | Metabolism: glucuronidation, |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 37.3 Å ² | conversion to CoA-thioester, |
| | | | log P | 3.50 | hydroxylation of isobutyl group at all positions, oxidation of (CH ₃) ₂ CH to HO ₂ C(CH ₃)CH; prodrug: hydroxamic acid (ibuproxam) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | – | V | – | LOXOPROFEN |
| | F | – | CL | – | Antiinflammatory |
| | pb | 97% | Mwt | 246.3 | Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol ($t_{1/2}$ 1.3 h) |
| | ur | – | PSA | 54.4 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 1.87 | |

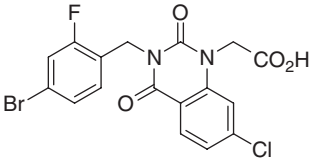
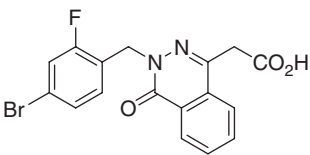
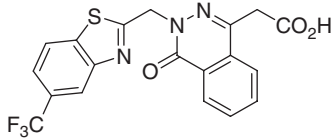
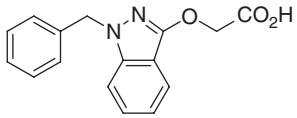
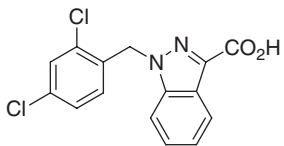
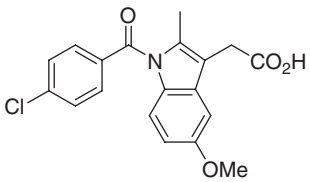
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6–3.8 h F 98% pb 93% ur 25% | V 0.26 CL 1.6 Mwt 261.3 PSA 69.9 Å ² log P 2.31 | XIMOPROFEN Antiinflammatory Metabolism: hydrolysis of oxime to ketone, then reduction to alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h F – pb – ur – | V 0.17 CL 0.5–1.0 Mwt 219.3 PSA 49.3 Å ² log P 2.51 | ALMINOPROFEN Antiinflammatory |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6±1 h F – pb >99.5% ur <5% | V 0.11–0.17 CL 0.28 Mwt 251.7 PSA 40.5 Å ² log P 2.71 | PIRPROFEN Antiinflammatory Metabolism: dehydrogenation to pyrrole, epoxidation and trans-dihydroxylation of alkene, N-dealkylation, then N-acetylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.0±0.5 h F – pb >99% ur 10–50% | V 0.1 CL – Mwt 226.7 PSA 46.5 Å ² log P 2.77 | ALCLOFENAC Analgesic, antipyretic, antiinflammatory Metabolism: epoxidation and dihydroxylation of alkene |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.5±1.4 h F 92% pb >99.5% ur 2±1% | V/F 0.15±0.02 CL/ F 0.35±0.09 Mwt 244.3 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 3.66 | FLURBIPROFEN Antiinflammatory, racemate Metabolism: 3- and 4-hydroxylation of Ph, then conjugation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14±1 h F 99% pb 99.7±0.1% ur <0.1% | V/F 0.16±0.02 CL/ F 0.13±0.02 Mwt 230.3 PSA 46.5 Å ² log P 2.88 | NAPROXEN Antiinflammatory Metabolites: glucuronide, O-desmethyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3±1 h F 100% pb 99% ur – | V 0.11–0.17 CL – Mwt 281.3 PSA 57.6 Å ² log P 2.82 | INDOPROFEN Antiinflammatory Metabolism: glucuronidation |

(continued overleaf)

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6±2 h F >75% pb >99% ur 13% | V 0.18–0.21 CL 0.32 Mwt 295.3 PSA 57.6 Å ² log P 3.30 | INDOBUFEN Antithrombotic Metabolism (rat): aromatic 5- and 6-hydroxylation of indolone, then conjugation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.8±0.3 h F 100% pb 99% ur <1% | V 0.15±0.03 CL 1.2±0.3 Mwt 254.3 PSA 54.4 Å ² log P 2.91 | KETOPROFEN Antiinflammatory, analgesic; racemate Metabolism: 3- and 4-hydroxylation of Ph, reduction of ketone to alcohol, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.1 h F 92% pb >99% ur – | V 0.04 CL 0.76 Mwt 260.3 PSA 82.6 Å ² log P 2.18 | SUPROFEN Antiinflammatory Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol, hydroxylation of thiophene, conjugation with glucuronic acid or taurine, oxidative degradation of thiophene to 2-(4-carboxyphenyl)-propionic acid; withdrawn 1987 for causing flank pain |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <1 h* F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 255.3 PSA 80.4 Å ² log P 2.23 | AMFENAC *monkey Antiinflammatory Metabolism: lactam formation, glucuronidation, hydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ <1 h* F 6% (rat) pb 99% ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 254.3 PSA 86.2 Å ² log P 1.04 | NEPAFENAC *monkey Prodrug of amfenac (acid), ophthalmic antiinflammatory Metabolism: hydrolysis of amide, para-hydroxylation of aniline |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5–4.0 h F 67±20% pb >99.8% ur Low | V 0.1 CL 1–2 Mwt 334.2 PSA 80.4 Å ² log P 2.02 | BROMFENAC Antiinflammatory Metabolism: N-glucosidation, acylglucuronidation, lactam formation; withdrawn in 1998 because of hepatotoxicity |

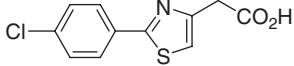
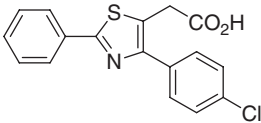
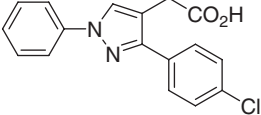
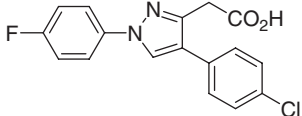
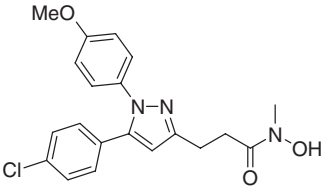
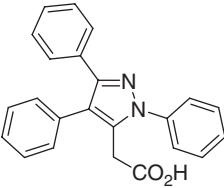
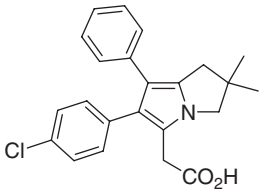
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5±0.5 h F 85% pb >99% ur 30% | V 0.1 CL 0.13–0.60 Mwt 242.3 PSA 46.5 Å ² log P 3.72 | FENOPROFEN Antiinflammatory Metabolites: glucuronide, 4-hydroxyphenoxy |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5 h F – pb – ur 1.3% | V – CL – Mwt 255.3 PSA 59.4 Å ² log P 1.34 | PRANOPROFEN Antiinflammatory Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9.6 h* F 84%* pb 99.6% ur 3% | V 1.2* CL 1.4* Mwt 298.4 PSA 79.7 Å ² log P 4.25 | ZALTOPROFEN *rat Antiinflammatory Metabolism: glucuronidation, S-oxidation to sulfoxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 21±6 h F 90% pb 99% ur 5–12% | V Small CL – Mwt 273.7 PSA 53.1 Å ² log P 3.84 | CARPROFEN Antiinflammatory Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7±4 h F >80% pb 99% ur <1% | V/F 0.36±0.13 CL/ F 0.78±0.27 Mwt 287.4 PSA 62.3 Å ² log P 3.42 | ETODOLAC Antiinflammatory Racemate Metabolites: glucuronide; 6- and 7-hydroxy, 1'-hydroxyethyl |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 27–35 h F >95% pb >99.5% ur – | V 0.15 CL – Mwt 301.7 PSA 63.3 Å ² log P 3.72 | BENOXAPROFEN Antiinflammatory Metabolism: glucuronidation (to acylglucuronide, $t_{1/2}$ 100 h); half-life is longer in elderly patients |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8±2 h F – pb – ur 10% | V 0.13–0.18* CL 0.4 Mwt 285.3 PSA 63.3 Å ² log P 3.18 | FLUNOXAPROFEN *monkey Antiinflammatory Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8 h (iv) F – pb – ur 95% (iv) | V 0.19 CL 5.3 Mwt 331.2 PSA 145 Å ² log P 0.12 | ZONAMPANEL NMDA antagonist Metabolism: reduction of NO ₂ to hydroxylamine, then to amine |

(continued overleaf)

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8 h F 65% (dog) pb >95% ur 27% | V – CL – Mwt 441.6 PSA 77.9 Å ² log P 4.36 | ZENARESTAT Aldose reductase inhibitor Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 13 h F 90% pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 391.2 PSA 70.0 Å ² log P 2.70 | PONALRESTAT Aldose reductase inhibitor Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 27–30 h F >45% pb >99% ur 35–45% | V/F 0.2 CL 0.08 Mwt 419.4 PSA 111 Å ² log P 3.01 | ZOPOLRESTAT Aldose reductase inhibitor for treatment of diabetic complications Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-dealkylation (to benzothiazole-2-carboxylic acid), aromatic hydroxylation, and dihydroxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–4 h F – pb >99% ur <10% | V 0.16 CL 0.6 Mwt 282.3 PSA 64.3 Å ² log P 2.83 | BENDAZAC Antiinflammatory Metabolites: 5-hydroxy, glucuronides |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–12 h F 50%* pb – ur High | V – CL – Mwt 321.2 PSA 55.1 Å ² log P 4.63 | LONIDAMINE *monkey Antineoplastic Metabolite: acyl glucuronide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.4±0.4 h F 98±21% pb 90% ur 15±8% | V 0.29±0.04 CL 1.4±0.2 Mwt 357.8 PSA 68.5 Å ² log P 4.25 | INDOMETHACIN Antiinflammatory Metabolism: O-demethylation, N-deacylation, glucuronidation; hydroxamic acid of indomethacin (oxametacin): $t_{1/2}$ 11±1 h Metabolism: O-demethylation, glucuronidation, reductive N–O bond cleavage, debenzoylation; no hydrolysis to indomethacin |

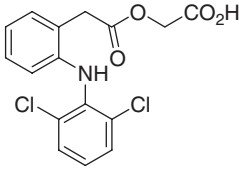
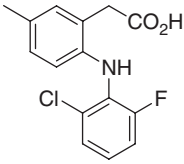
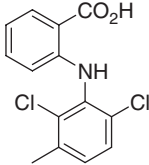
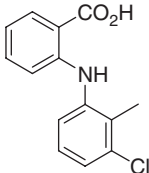
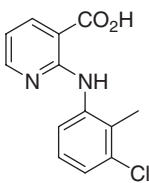
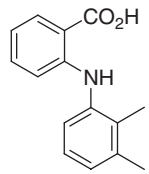
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 4.5±2.8 h F 66–100% pb 88% ur – | V 1 CL – Mwt 415.8 PSA 94.8 Å ² log P 4.49 | ACEMETACIN Antiinflammatory Metabolism: glucuronidation, ester hydrolysis to indomethacin, O-demethylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3.8±0.2 h F – pb – ur – | V 0.28±0.03 CL 0.85±0.08 Mwt 349.4 PSA 68.5 Å ² log P 3.91 | CINMETACIN Antiinflammatory Metabolism: hydrogenation of olefin, O-demethylation, N-deacylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 15±4 h* F 90%* pb 94±1%* ur Negligible | V/F 2 CL 1.5±0.9* Mwt 356.4 PSA 73.6 Å ² log P 2.55 | SULINDAC *sulfide on oral dosing of sulindac Antiinflammatory Metabolism: oxidation to sulfone, reduction to sulfide |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4.9±0.3 h F >90% pb >99% ur 7±3% | V/F 0.54±0.07 CL/ F 1.3±0.3 Mwt 257.3 PSA 59.3 Å ² log P 2.68 | TOLMETIN Antiinflammatory Metabolism: glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4–10 h F 100% pb 98–99% ur 5–20% | V – CL 3.7–4.6 Mwt 291.7 PSA 59.3 Å ² log P 3.36 | ZOMEPIRAC Antiinflammatory Metabolism: glucuronidation, hydroxylation of CCH ₃ , cleavage to 4-chlorobenzoic acid; withdrawn in 1983 for causing anaphylaxis |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5.3±1.2 h F 90±10% pb 99% ur 5–10% | V 0.21±0.04 CL 0.50±0.15 Mwt 255.3 PSA 59.3 Å ² log P 2.68 | KETOROLAC Antiinflammatory, analgesic Metabolism: glucuronidation, 4-hydroxylation of Ph |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2±1 h F 95±5% pb 98–99% ur <5% | V 0.04–0.17 CL 0.5–1.4 Mwt 260.3 PSA 82.6 Å ² log P 2.57 | TIAPROFENIC ACID Antiinflammatory Metabolism: reduction of ketone to alcohol, 4-hydroxylation of Ph |

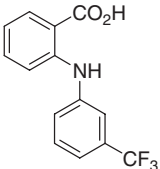
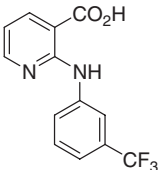
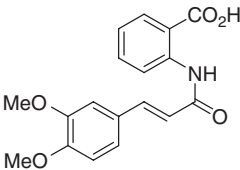
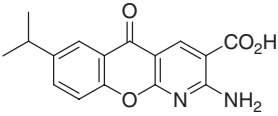
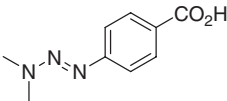
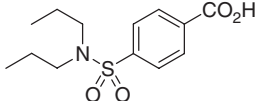
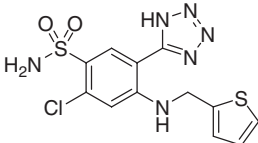
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 26–31 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 253.7 PSA 78.4 Å ² $\log P$ 3.11 | FENCLOZIC ACID, MYALEX Antiinflammatory, hepatotoxic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F – pb 99.1% ur – | V – CL 8.6 Mwt 329.8 PSA 78.4 Å ² $\log P$ 5.05 | FENTIAZAC Antiinflammatory Metabolism: 4-hydroxylation of Ph |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–12 h F – pb 99% ur 2% | V – CL – Mwt 312.8 PSA 50.2 Å ² $\log P$ 4.13 | LONAZOLAC Antiinflammatory Metabolism: aromatic 4-hydroxylation, then sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17±1 h F 100% pb 99% ur 10% | V – CL 0.25±0.32 Mwt 330.7 PSA 55.1 Å ² $\log P$ 3.84 | PIRAZOLAC Antiinflammatory Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.3 h F – pb >98% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 385.8 PSA 67.6 Å ² $\log P$ 3.16 | TEPOXALIN Antiinflammatory Metabolite: carboxylic acid ($t_{1/2}$ 12–14 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.8±0.8 h F – pb 99% ur 14±5% | V – CL – Mwt 354.4 PSA 55.1 Å ² $\log P$ 3.56 | ISOFEZOLAC Antiinflammatory |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–11 h F High pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 379.9 PSA 37.3 Å ² $\log P$ 6.73 | LICOFELONE Antiinflammatory Metabolism: methyl and phenyl hydroxylation, glucuronidation |

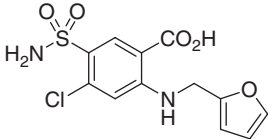
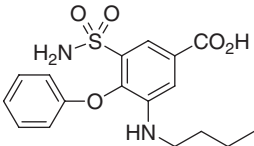
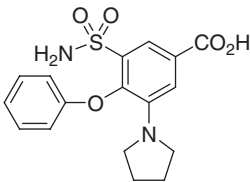
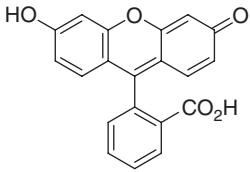
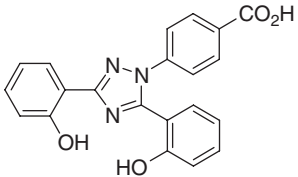
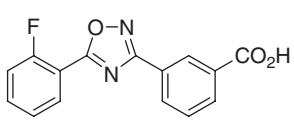
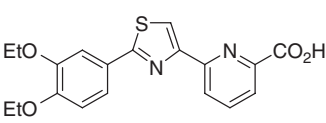
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 17 h F 71% pb >99% ur 5% | V 1.1 CL – Mwt 435.9 PSA 84.8 Å ² $\log P$ 3.82 | LAROPIPRANT Prostaglandin (DP ₁) antagonist, vasoconstrictor, in combination with niacin as antilipemic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 20–25 h F – pb 99% ur <0.1% | V 6 CL 3–7 Mwt 510.6 PSA 88.5 Å ² $\log P$ 5.80 | ATRASENTAN Antineoplastic Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-debutylation, O-demethylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 61–90 h F – pb 99.99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 410.9 PSA 79.7 Å ² $\log P$ 6.51 | TANOMASTAT, BAY-129566 Matrix metalloproteinase inhibitor, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 8.1±4.3 h F 73%* pb 99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 282.3 PSA 63.6 Å ² $\log P$ 3.60 | VADIMEZAN, ASA404, DMXAA *mice Antineoplastic Metabolism: glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 29±9 h F 100% pb – ur – | V 0.20–0.25 CL – Mwt 297.1 PSA 46.5 Å ² $\log P$ 4.59 | FENCLOFENAC Antiinflammatory |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1±0.2 h F 54±2% pb >99.5% ur <1% | V 0.17±0.11 CL 4.2±0.9 Mwt 296.2 PSA 49.3 Å ² $\log P$ 4.55 | DICLOFENAC Antiinflammatory Metabolized by CYP2C9 to 4'-hydroxy ($t_{1/2}$ 4.3 h); further metabolism: aromatic 5- and 3'-hydroxylation, then 4'-O-methylation |

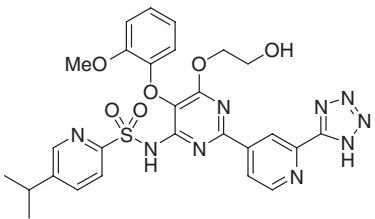
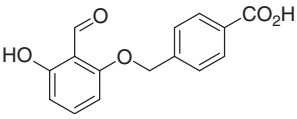
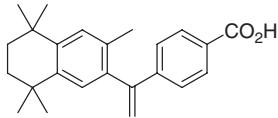
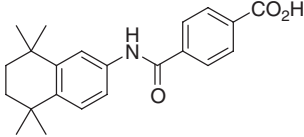
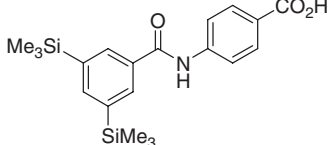
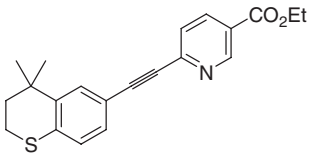
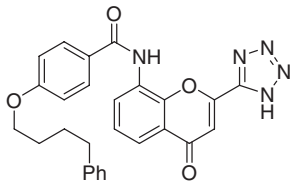
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|---|--|---|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4.9±1.4 h F – pb >99% ur <1% | V 0.36 CL – Mwt 354.2 PSA 75.6 Å ² log P 3.81 | ACECLOFENAC Antiinflammatory Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, aromatic 4'-hydroxylation of dichlorophenyl, then conjugation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–7 h F 74% pb 98% ur 3.3% | V 0.14 CL 2.1 Mwt 293.7 PSA 49.3 Å ² log P 3.90 | LUMIRACOXIB Antiinflammatory Metabolism: oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H, 4'-hydroxylation of dihaloarene, then glucuronidation; withdrawn in 2007 because of hepatotoxicity |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3±1 h F 65±3%* pb 99.8% ur 3±1% | V 0.14–0.67 CL 3.2 Mwt 296.2 PSA 49.3 Å ² log P 5.44 | MECLOFENAMIC ACID *sheep Antiinflammatory Metabolism: glucuronidation, oxidation of CH ₃ to CH ₂ OH, then to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5±0.6 h F 60% pb 99.7% ur <8% | V 0.16 CL 2.4±0.2 Mwt 261.7 PSA 49.3 Å ² log P 5.47 | TOLFENAMIC ACID Antiinflammatory Metabolism, aromatic hydroxylation (ortho to Cl), oxidation of CH ₃ to CHO |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5±0.1 h F – pb – ur – | V 0.11 CL – Mwt 262.7 PSA 62.2 Å ² log P 4.71 | CLONIXIN Analgesic Metabolism: aromatic 4'-(ortho to Cl)- and 5-hydroxylation, hydroxylation of CH ₃ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3±1 h F Low pb 99% ur <6% | V 1.1 CL 5.4 Mwt 241.3 PSA 49.3 Å ² log P 4.83 | MEFENAMIC ACID Antiinflammatory Metabolism (by CYP2C9) to 3-hydroxymethyl mefenamic acid, then to 3-carboxymefenamic acid |

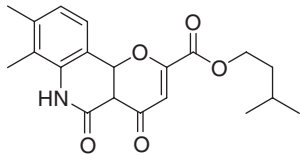
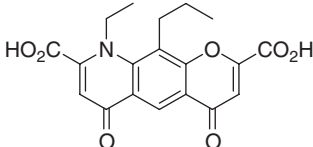
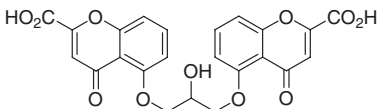
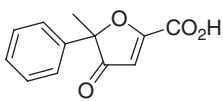
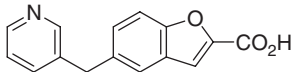
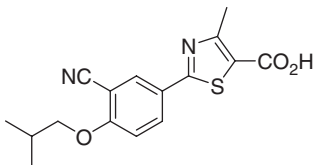
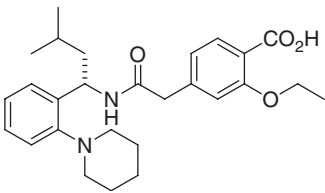
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9 h F – pb >90% ur <1% | V – CL 1.2–2.3 Mwt 281.2 PSA 49.3 Å ² $\log P$ 5.22 | FLUFENAMIC ACID Antiinflammatory Prodrug: etofenamate (monoester of diethyleneglycol) for topical application |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F – pb 90–97% ur 5% | V 0.12 CL 0.7 Mwt 282.2 PSA 62.2 Å ² $\log P$ 4.46 | NIFLUMIC ACID Antiinflammatory Metabolism: glucuronidation, aromatic 4'- and 5-hydroxylation, then sulfation and glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–9 h F 0.2%* pb – ur – | V/F 0.09 CL/F 0.13 Mwt 327.3 PSA 84.9 Å ² $\log P$ 3.17 | TRANILAST *transdermal Antiallergic Metabolism: glucuronidation, 4-O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.5±1.1 h F – pb – ur 17% | V – CL – Mwt 298.3 PSA 103 Å ² $\log P$ 3.74 | AMLEXANOX Antiallergic, antiasthmatic Metabolism: hydroxylation of CHMe ₂ , then conjugation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5 h (iv) F – pb – ur – | V 0.25 CL 1.3 Mwt 193.2 PSA 65.3 Å ² $\log P$ 2.59 | CB 10-277 Antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–12 h F 100% pb 90±5% ur 1.2±0.2% | V 0.17±0.03 CL 0.4 Mwt 285.4 PSA 83.1 Å ² $\log P$ 2.51 | PROBENECID Uricosuric Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation, hydroxylation at CH ₂ Me and Me, N-depropylation, oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F 15–20% pb >95% ur 27% | V 0.26 CL 1.7 Mwt 370.8 PSA 163 Å ² $\log P$ 1.40 | AZOSEMIDE Diuretic Metabolism: N-dealkylation |

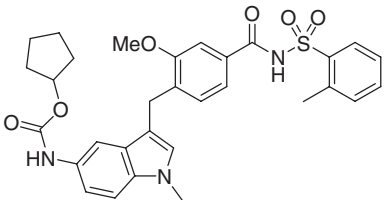
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.3–3.4 h F 61±17% pb 98.8±0.2% ur 66±7% | V 0.11±0.02 CL 2.0±0.4 Mwt 330.7 PSA 131 Å ² log P 2.30 | FUROSEMIDE Diuretic Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation, N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8±0.2 h F 59–89% pb 99% ur 62±20% | V 0.13±0.03 CL 2.6±0.5 Mwt 364.4 PSA 127 Å ² log P 2.88 | BUMETANIDE Diuretic Metabolism: glucuronidation, β-, γ-, and δ-hydroxylation of butyl, N-debutylation, oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0±0.5 h F 80% pb 94% ur 50% | V 0.25–0.30 CL 3.8±0.8 (iv) Mwt 362.4 PSA 118 Å ² log P 2.30 | PIRETANIDE Diuretic Metabolism: cleavage of pyrrolidine to aminobutanol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6 h (iv) F – pb 85–90% ur – | V 0.14 CL 1.3 Mwt 332.3 PSA 76.0 Å ² log P 2.68 | FLUORESC EIN Diagnostic aid Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8–16 h F 74±13% pb 99% ur 2% | V 0.2 CL 0.9±0.2 Mwt 373.4 PSA 108 Å ² log P 5.15 | DEFERASIROX, ICL 670 Iron chelator Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–6 h F High pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 284.2 PSA 76.2 Å ² log P 3.73 | ATALUREN Nonsense mutation suppressor for treatment of cystic fibrosis and muscular dystrophy |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24 h F 100% pb >99.5% ur – | V 0.18 CL – Mwt 370.4 PSA 110 Å ² log P 3.48 | TETOMILAST, OPC-6535 PDE ₄ inhibitor |

| | | | |
|---|--|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.2 h (iv) F – pb >99% ur 2% (iv) | V 0.3 CL 8–9 Mwt 605.6 PSA 208 Å ² log P 0.88 | TEZOSENTAN Endothelin antagonist for treatment of heart failure Metabolism: hydroxylation at $CHMe_2$ |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 195±95 h F – pb >98.5% ur – | V 0.3 CL 0.03 Mwt 272.3 PSA 83.8 Å ² log P 2.75 | TUCARESOL Antisickling agent, increases oxygen affinity of hemoglobin |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7 h F 8% (dog) pb >99% ur <1% | V 1 CL – Mwt 348.5 PSA 37.3 Å ² log P 6.90 | BEXAROTENE Antineoplastic Metabolism: hydroxylation of CH_2CH_2 , then oxidation of alcohol to ketone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h F – pb >99% ur – | V – CL – Mwt 351.4 PSA 66.4 Å ² log P 5.52 | TAMIBAROTENE Retinoic acid- α agonist, antileukemic Metabolism: oxidation of CH_2 to ketone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–8 h F 62–94%* pb – ur – | V 0.7–0.9 CL 1.3 Mwt 385.6 PSA 66.4 Å ² log P 7.73 | TAC-101 *rat, dog Retinoic acid analog, antineoplastic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 14–20 h* F 1–5%** pb 99% ur 0% | V 2* CL 1.6* Mwt 351.5 PSA 64.5 Å ² log P 5.99 | TAZAROTENE *acid on oral dosing of ester **from topical dosing Topical antipsoriatic Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, oxidation to sulfoxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7–9.3 h F <20% pb >99% ur Low | V/F 1.53 CL/ F 19 Mwt 481.5 PSA 119 Å ² log P 4.20 | PRANLUKAST Antiasthmatic Metabolism: phenyl 4-hydroxylation, then O-sulfation, benzylic hydroxylation, then oxidation to ketone |

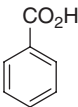
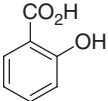
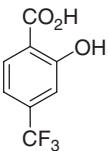
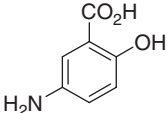
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–10 h* F 5–80%* pb 97%* ur 7.4%* | V – CL – Mwt 355.4 PSA 81.7 Å ² log <i>P</i> 4.89 | REPIRINAST *acid on oral dosing of ester Antiallergic Ester not detectable in plasma on oral dosing |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1–3.3 h F 2–3%* pb 89% ur 64–81% | V 0.43 CL 10.2 Mwt 371.3 PSA 121 Å ² log <i>P</i> 1.30 | NEDOCROMIL *pulmonal: 6% Antiallergic, antiasthmatic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0–1.5 h F 1–2% pb 57–69% ur 50% | V 0.32 CL 8 Mwt 468.4 PSA 166 Å ² log <i>P</i> 2.00 | CROMOGLICIC ACID, CROMOLYN Antiallergic, antiasthmatic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.4–1.6 h F – pb 88% ur 78–95% | V 0.5 CL 2.6 Mwt 218.2 PSA 63.6 Å ² log <i>P</i> 2.04 | ACIFRAN Antihyperlipoproteinemic |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F 75–80%* pb – ur 62–78% | V – CL – Mwt 253.3 PSA 63.3 Å ² log <i>P</i> 2.76 | FUREGRELATE *dog Thromboxane A ₂ synthase inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5–8 h F 84% pb 99.2% ur 3% | V 0.8 CL 2.6–3.1 Mwt 316.4 PSA 111 Å ² log <i>P</i> 4.87 | FEBUXOSTAT Xanthine oxidase inhibitor for treatment of gout Metabolism: oxidation of isobutyl, hydroxylation, glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5–1.0 h F 56–63% pb >98% ur <2% | V 0.3–0.9 CL 7.8 Mwt 452.6 PSA 78.9 Å ² log <i>P</i> 4.69 | REPAGLINIDE Antidiabetic Metabolism: glucuronidation, piperidine 3-hydroxylation, O-deethylation, 2-hydroxylation of isopropyl, piperidine cleavage to 5-aminovaleric acid, then aniline N-dealkylation |

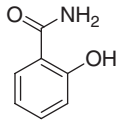
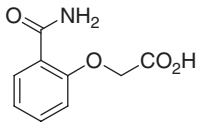
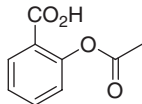
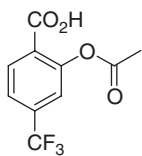
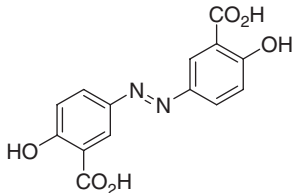
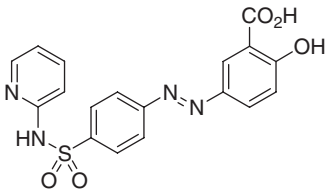
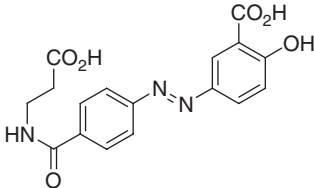
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 8–16 h | V/F | 1.1 | ZAFIRLUKAST Antiasthmatic, leukotriene D ₄ and E ₄ antagonist, CYP2C9 substrate, and inhibitor Metabolism (animals): N-demethylation, hydrolysis of carbamate, then N-acetylation of aniline, hydroxylation of cyclopentyl group |
| | F | – | CL/F | 5.1 | |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 575.7 | |
| | ur | <10% | PSA | 124 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 5.04 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL , clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; NMDA, *N*-methyl D-aspartic acid; PDE, phosphodiesterase.

Table 68.2 Salicylic acid analogs. V in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|---------|---------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | <6 h | V | – | BENZOIC ACID Metabolite: hippuric acid (<i>N</i> -benzoylglycine), benzoyl glucuronide |
| | F | 100% | CL | – | |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 122.1 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 37.3 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 1.56 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.4 h* | V | 0.17±0.03 | SALICYLIC ACID *300 mg Metabolism: aromatic 5-hydroxylation (to gentisic acid), conjugation with glucuronic acid and glycine |
| | F | 100% | CL | 0.18–0.88 | |
| | pb | 80–95% | Mwt | 138.1 | |
| | ur | 2–30% | PSA | 57.5 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.01 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 34 h | V | 0.13 | 2-HYDROXY-4-TRIFLUOROMETHYL BENZOIC ACID Main metabolite of triflusal |
| | F | – | CL | 0.4 | |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 206.1 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 57.5 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 4.25 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.5±1.0 h | V | 0.26–0.33 | MESALAZINE 5-AMINOSALICYLIC ACID Metabolism: N-acetylation |
| | F | 15–25% | CL | 4–9 | |
| | pb | 43–60% | Mwt | 153.1 | |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 83.6 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 0.74 | |

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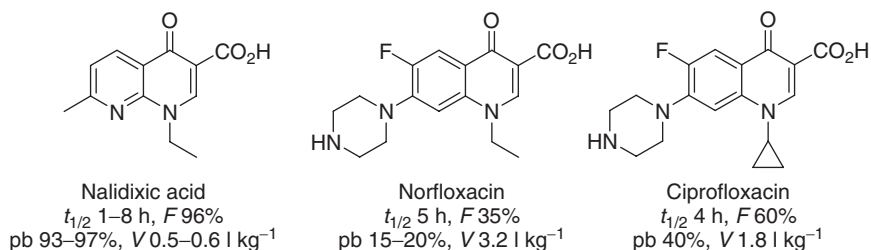
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0–1.5 h F <10% pb – ur <2% | V – CL – Mwt 137.1 PSA 63.3 Å ² log P 1.35 | SALICYLAMIDE Main metabolites: O-glucuronide, O-sulfate, gentisamide (2,5-dihydroxybenzamide); no hydrolysis to salicylic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9±0.2 h* F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 195.2 PSA 89.6 Å ² log P –0.61 | SALICYLAMIDE O-ACETIC ACID; (2-CARBAMOYL- PHENOXY) ACETIC ACID *im Analgesic Metabolite: salicylamide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.25 h F 68±3% pb 49% ur 1.4±1.2% | V 0.15±0.03 CL 9.3±1.1 Mwt 180.2 PSA 63.6 Å ² log P 1.40 | ACETYLSALICYLIC ACID, ASPIRIN Deacetylation: $t_{1/2}$ 2 h Deacetylation of esters of acetylsalicylic acid: $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 min |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5 h F – pb – ur – | V 0.5 CL 10.8 Mwt 248.2 PSA 63.6 Å ² log P 2.90 | TRIFLUSAL Metabolism: deacetylation to 2-hydroxy-4-trifluoromethyl- benzoic acid (see above) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h F <5% pb 99% ur <1% | V 0.07 CL 1.2 Mwt 302.2 PSA 140 Å ² log P 3.57 | OLSALAZINE, MORDANT YELLOW Metabolite: 5-Aminosalicylic acid ($t_{1/2}$ 1.5±1.0 h) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.4–14 h F <20% pb 95–99% ur 10–15% | V 7.5 CL 0.26 Mwt 398.4 PSA 150 Å ² log P 3.05 | SULFASALAZINE Cleaved in the colon by gut bacteria to sulfapyridine and 5-aminosalicylic acid |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h F <1% pb >99% ur <1%* | V – CL 1.2 Mwt 357.3 PSA 149 Å ² log P 3.11 | BALSALAZIDE *10% N-acetyl-5-aminosalicylic acid; cleaved by gut bacteria to 5-aminosalicylic acid |

| | | | |
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 18 h F >60% pb – ur 28% | V – CL – Mwt 344.4 PSA 135 Å ² log P 0.75 | SULTOSILIC ACID Antihyperlipidemic Metabolism: hydroxylation and oxidation of CH ₃ to CO ₂ H |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 11±2 h F 90% pb 99.9% ur 6±3% | V 0.10±0.01 CL 0.10±0.02 Mwt 250.2 PSA 57.5 Å ² log P 3.65 | DIFLUNISAL Analgesic, antiinflammatory Metabolism: sulfation, phenolic and acyl glucuronidation (acyl glucuronide $t_{1/2}$ 12–30 h) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 381.4 PSA 62.5 Å ² log P 5.04 | FENDOSAL Analgesic, antiinflammatory Metabolism: hydroxylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4–8 h* F 35%* pb 99%* ur 20%* | V – CL – Mwt 368.3 PSA 124 Å ² log P 3.13 | DIACEREIN, DIACETYLRHEIN *Rhein on oral dosing of diacerein Antiarthritic Metabolism: deacetylation to rhein, then glucuronidation, sulfation |

69

Quinolonecarboxylic Acids (Gyrase Inhibitors)

Nalidixic acid was introduced in 1963 as an antibacterial for the treatment of urinary tract infections. Despite belonging to a new class of antibacterial agents, nalidixic acid was no great success, mainly because of its low potency, its side effect profile, and the quick development of resistance. As reflected by its low volume of distribution and high affinity to plasma proteins, nalidixic acid does not reach high concentrations in most organs and is therefore of little therapeutic value. These issues were addressed by Japanese and German researchers, who introduced a basic, positively charged group to enhance the solubility and volume of distribution, while lowering the affinity to plasma proteins. Thereby, the drug concentration in potentially infected tissues was increased and the interindividual variability of pharmacokinetic (PK) parameters reduced. These efforts led to compounds such as pипemidic acid (1974), norfloxacin (1978), pefloxacin (1979), ofloxacin (1982), and ciprofloxacin (1983) (Scheme 69.1).

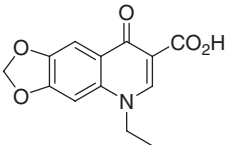
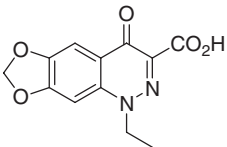
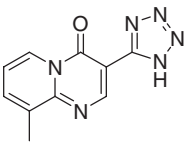
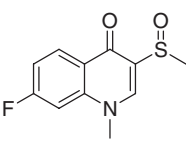
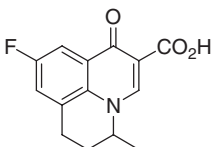
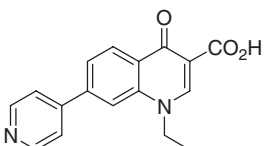
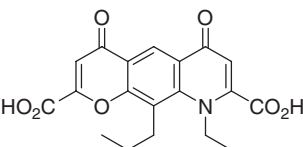


Scheme 69.1 Quinolone antibacterials.

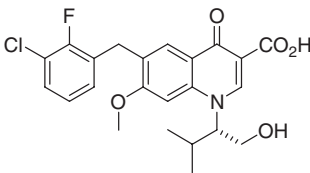
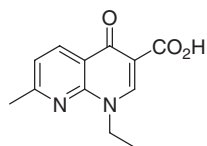
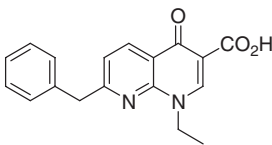
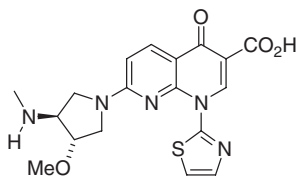
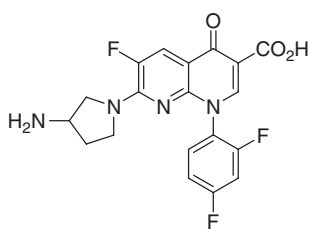
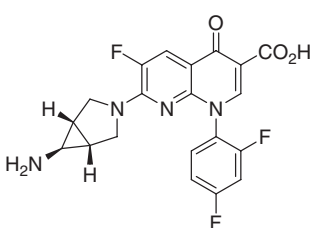
Quinolone antibiotics are potent inhibitors of bacterial DNA gyrase, but much less potent inhibitors of eukaryotic type II topoisomerase. DNA gyrase is an enzyme capable of temporarily breaking DNA and then reassembling it. This enzyme belongs to the topoisomerases and is essential for the replication, transcription, recombination, and reparation of DNA, as well as for the compact packing of DNA within cells.

The newer quinolone antibiotics (Table 69.1) are mainly metabolized at the alkylamine substructures by oxidative N-dealkylation and conjugation.

Table 69.1 Quinolonecarboxylic acids and related compounds. *V* in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

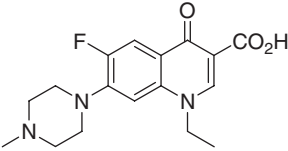
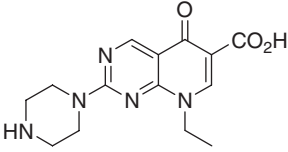
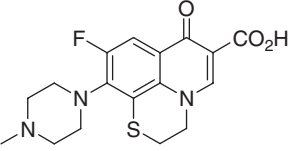
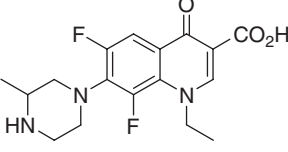
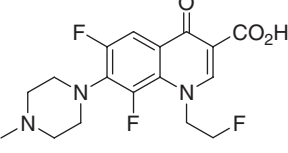
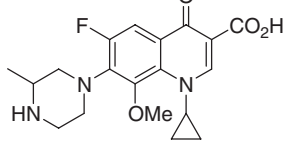
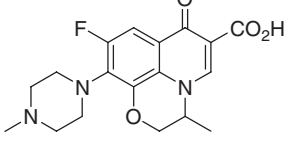
| | | | |
|---|--|---|--|
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 6–7 h <i>F</i> 50% pb 77–85% ur 5% | <i>V</i> – CL – Mwt 261.2 PSA 76.1 Å ² log <i>P</i> –0.38 | OXOLINIC ACID Antibacterial Metabolism: acetal hydrolysis, then O-methylation by COMT |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 1–2 h <i>F</i> 60–85% pb 43–63% ur 60–85% | <i>V</i> 0.33 CL 2.5 Mwt 262.2 PSA 88.4 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.49 | CINOXACIN Antibacterial |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 4.5 h <i>F</i> – pb – ur 10–15% | <i>V</i> – CL – Mwt 228.2 PSA 87.1 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.22 | PEMIROLAST Antiallergic |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 1.7±0.5 h <i>F</i> 72% pb – ur 1% | <i>V</i> 0.8 CL 8.2 Mwt 239.3 PSA 56.6 Å ² log <i>P</i> –1.43 | FLOSEQUINAN Antihypertensive Metabolite: sulfone (<i>t</i> _{1/2} 30–40 h); withdrawn in 1993 because of excessive toxicity |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 7 h <i>F</i> 56–93%* pb 75%* ur – | <i>V</i> 1.4* CL – Mwt 261.3 PSA 57.6 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.88 | FLUMEQUINE *calves Antibacterial Metabolism: benzylic hydroxylation, glucuronidation |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 5±1 h <i>F</i> >64% pb 70% ur 4–5% | <i>V</i> 0.64±0.05 CL 2.1±0.2 Mwt 294.3 PSA 70.5 Å ² log <i>P</i> 0.57 | ROSOXACIN Antibacterial Metabolism: pyridine N-oxidation, glucuronidation |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} 1.1–3.3 h <i>F</i> 2–3%* pb 89% ur 64–81% | <i>V</i> 0.43 CL 10.2 Mwt 371.3 PSA 121 Å ² log <i>P</i> 1.30 | NEDOCROMIL *pulmonal: 6% Antiallergic, antiasthmatic |

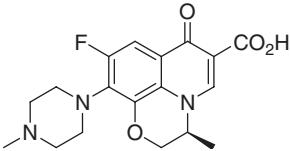
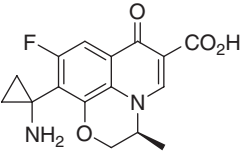
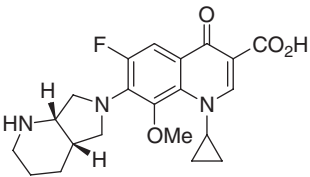
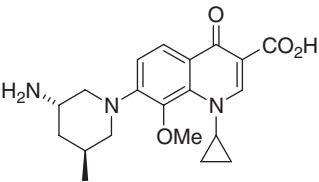
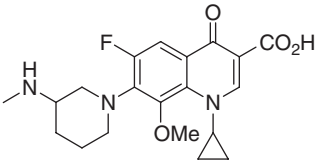
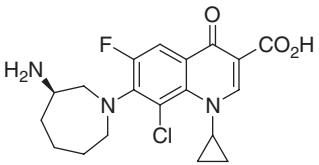
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| | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–9 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 447.9 PSA 87.1 Å ² log P 3.26 | ELVITEGRAVIR HIV-1 integrase inhibitor, antiviral Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–8 h F 96% pb 93–97% ur 11–33% | V 0.5–0.6 CL – Mwt 232.2 PSA 70.5 Å ² log P 0.03 | NALIDIXIC ACID Antibacterial Metabolites: acyl glucuronide, 7-hydroxymethyl ($t_{1/2}$ 3–6 h, pb 63%), 7-carboxy |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 308.3 PSA 70.5 Å ² log P 1.38 | AMFONELIC ACID Dopamine reuptake inhibitor, locomotor stimulant |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6–24 h F – pb 50–75% ur – | V 4 CL 10 Mwt 401.4 PSA 136 Å ² log P –0.86 | VORELOXIN Antineoplastic, topoisomerase II inhibitor Metabolism: O-demethylation, glucuronidation, N-dealkylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.5±0.2 h F – pb 37% ur 34±9% | V 1.5–7.3 CL 6.4–39 Mwt 404.3 PSA 99.8 Å ² log P 1.01 | TOSUFLOXACIN Antibacterial, racemate Metabolism: glucuronidation, replacement of NH ₂ by OH |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±1 h F 90% pb 76–88% ur 9.3±2.5% | V 1.3 CL 1.4 Mwt 416.4 PSA 99.8 Å ² log P 1.08 | TROVAFLOXACIN Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation, N-sulfation, N-acetylation Prodrug: alatrofloxacin (Chapter 33); withdrawn in 2001 because of hepatotoxicity |

| | | | |
|--|---|--|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 8.0±0.5 h F 90% pb 26% ur 74±18% | V 1.5 CL 3.4 Mwt 417.4 PSA 72.9 Å ² $\log P$ 1.28 | TEMAFLORACIN Metabolism: oxidative degradation of piperazine to ethylenediamines; withdrawn in 1992 because of excessive toxicity (hemolytic uremic anemia) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 21–29 h F – pb – ur 10% | V 1.4–1.5 CL – Mwt 399.4 PSA 64.1 Å ² $\log P$ 0.84 | DIFLOXACIN Antibacterial, does not cross bbb Metabolism: N-demethylation, N-oxidation, oxidative degradation of piperazine to ethylenediamines |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4.1±0.9 h F 60±12% pb 40% ur 65±12% | V 1.8±0.4 CL 6.0±1.2 Mwt 331.3 PSA 72.9 Å ² $\log P$ 1.31 | CIPROFLOXACIN Antibacterial, does not cross bbb Metabolism: piperazine 3'-hydroxylation, N-sulfation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 11±1 h F 72% pb 50% ur 9±3% | V 5–8 CL 3.9±0.9 Mwt 359.4 PSA 72.9 Å ² $\log P$ 2.27 | GREPAFLOXACIN Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-sulfation, oxidative degradation of piperazine; withdrawn in 1999 because of QT interval prolongation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4.5±1.0 h F 87±16% pb 40% ur 45±11% | V 1.6±0.4 CL 5.0±1.2 Mwt 320.3 PSA 85.8 Å ² $\log P$ 1.21 | ENOXACIN Antibacterial, does not cross bbb Metabolism: N-acetylation, 3'-oxidation of piperazine to lactam, oxidative degradation of piperazine |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5.0±0.7 h F 35±5% pb 15–20% ur 29±3% | V/F 3.2±1.4 CL/F 7.2±3.0 Mwt 319.3 PSA 72.9 Å ² $\log P$ 1.74 | NORFLOXACIN Antibacterial Metabolism: N-formylation, N-acetylation, 3'-oxidation of piperazine to lactam, cleavage of piperazine to N-2-(aminoethyl)aniline and an unsubstituted aromatic amine |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10±1 h F 100% pb 20–30% ur 42% | V 1.5 CL 2.1 Mwt 333.4 PSA 64.1 Å ² log P 1.92 | PEFLOXACIN Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-demethylation, 3'-oxidation to lactam, N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.4±0.2 h F 93±11% pb 10–30% ur 90% | V 1.9±0.2 CL 6.3±0.5 Mwt 303.3 PSA 98.7 Å ² log P -0.19 | PIPEMIDIC ACID Antibacterial Metabolism: N-acetylation, N-formylation, 3'-oxidation of piperazine to lactam |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 38±3 h F 70%* pb 60% ur 30–50% | V 2.0–2.1 CL 0.62 Mwt 363.4 PSA 89.4 Å ² log P 1.85 | RUFLOXACIN *monkey Antibacterial Metabolism: N-demethylation, oxidation to sulfoxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 8.0±1.4 h F 97±2% pb 10–20% ur 65±9% | V 2.3±0.3 CL 3.3±0.5 Mwt 351.4 PSA 72.9 Å ² log P 2.46 | LOMEFLOXACIN Antibacterial, racemate Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±2 h F >98% pb 25±5% ur 60–70% | V 1.5±0.3 CL 2.4 Mwt 369.3 PSA 64.1 Å ² log P 1.84 | FLEROXACIN Antibacterial, does not cross bbb Metabolism: N-demethylation, N-oxidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 6.5±1.5 h F 96% pb 20% ur 82–88% | V 2.2±0.2 CL 3.3±0.5 Mwt 375.4 PSA 82.1 Å ² log P 2.10 | GATIFLOXACIN Antibacterial Metabolism: oxidative degradation of piperazine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.7±1.0 h F 100% pb 25±6% ur 64±16% | V 1.8±0.3 CL 3.5±0.7 Mwt 361.4 PSA 73.3 Å ² log P 1.86 | OFLOXACIN Antibacterial Metabolism: N-demethylation, N-oxidation |

| | | | |
|---|--|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7±1 h F 99% pb 24–52% ur >85% | V 1.3 CL – Mwt 361.4 PSA 73.3 Å ² $\log P$ 1.86 | LEVOFLOXACIN Antibacterial Does not racemize <i>in vivo</i> Metabolites: <i>N</i> -desmethyl, <i>N</i> -oxide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4±2 h F – pb – ur 70% | V 0.9 CL 6.8 Mwt 318.3 PSA 92.9 Å ² $\log P$ 0.35 | PAZUFLOXACIN Parenteral antibacterial Metabolism: glucuronidation, oxidative degradation of aminocyclopropyl group (to 1-hydroxyethyl, 3-hydroxypropanoyl) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 12 h F 90% pb 39–52% ur 20±5% | V 2.0–3.6 CL 3.3±0.5 Mwt 401.4 PSA 82.1 Å ² $\log P$ 1.90 | MOXIFLOXACIN Antibacterial Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation, <i>N</i> -sulfation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–16 h F – pb 16% ur 34–56% | V 3.4–5.3 CL 3.7 Mwt 371.4 PSA 96.1 Å ² $\log P$ 0.94 | NEMONOXACIN Antibacterial |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11±4 h F 88%* pb – ur 23%* | V/F 0.7 CL 3.0±0.5 Mwt 389.4 PSA 82.1 Å ² $\log P$ 1.54 | BALOFLOXACIN *dog Antibacterial Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation, <i>N</i> -demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 7 h F – pb 39–44% ur 23%* | V – CL – Mwt 393.8 PSA 86.9 Å ² $\log P$ 2.57 | BESIFLOXACIN *animals Topical and ophthalmic antibacterial |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|--|---|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5.7±0.7 h F 90% pb 50–60% ur 58±18% | V 2.6±0.3 CL 5.3±0.6 Mwt 365.8 PSA 86.9 Å ² log P 2.45 | CLINAFLOXACIN Antibacterial |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5.9±0.7 h F 89% pb 49% ur 26–86% | V 2.8 CL 4.6 Mwt 409.8 PSA 86.9 Å ² log P 1.53 | SITAFLOXACIN Antibacterial Metabolism: N-acetylation, replacement of NH ₂ by OH, then oxidation to ketone, ring scission of pyrrolidine to aminobutanol, then oxidation to aminobutyric acid |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7.3±2.5 h F 71% pb 60–70% ur 18±4% | V 1.5–3.5 CL 12.5±5.6 Mwt 389.4 PSA 121 Å ² log P 1.04 | GEMIFLOXACIN Antibacterial Metabolism: glucuronidation, N-acetylation, isomerization of oxime |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 18±2 h F 90% pb 45% ur 9–10% | V 4–6 CL 2.7 Mwt 392.4 PSA 98.9 Å ² log P 2.60 | SPARFLOXACIN Antibacterial Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 10–12 h* F – pb 41–59% ur – | V 19 CL – Mwt 349.4 PSA 98.2 Å ² log P 2.53 | ULIFLOXACIN *ulifloxacin on oral dosing of prulifloxacin (Chapter 23) Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation, oxidative cleavage of piperazine Prodrug: prulifloxacin, which cannot be detected in plasma after oral dosing |

| | | | |
|--|--|---|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 13–18 h F 76%* pb 87% ur 30–50% | V 1.0–1.5* CL – Mwt 426.4 PSA 78.9 Å ² log P 1.62 | GARENOXACIN *monkey Antibacterial Metabolism: glucuronidation, sulfation, probably forms reactive metabolite (isoindole) by oxidation of isoindoline |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4 h F High pb – ur <5% | V – CL – Mwt 249.3 PSA 50.2 Å ² log P 4.18 | CINCHOPHEN Analgesic, induces ulcers, hepatotoxic Metabolism: aromatic hydroxylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 13–18 h F High pb >98% ur 0.1–6%* | V 0.24±0.08 CL 0.5±0.2 Mwt 375.4 PSA 50.2 Å ² log P 6.69 | BREQUINAR *iv Immunosuppressant |

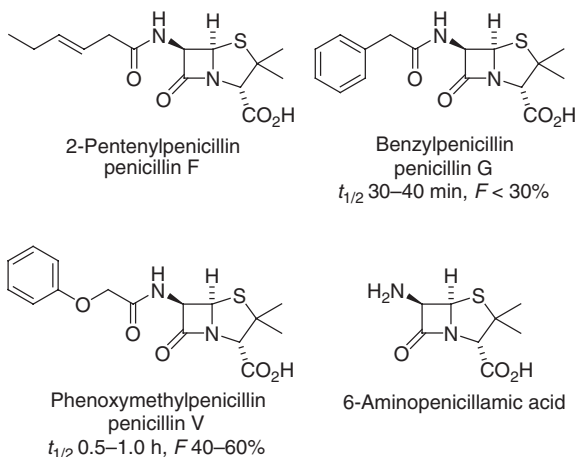
$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; bbb, blood–brain barrier; COMT, catechol-*O*-methyltransferase.

70

 β -Lactams

In 1928, Alexander Fleming, a microbiologist working at St. Mary's Hospital in London, discovered a mold (*Penicillium notatum*), which inhibited bacterial growth in its proximity. He called the antibiotic penicillin and explored its usefulness as topical antiseptic, but failed to test its efficacy after parenteral dosing *in vivo*. More than a decade later, Florey, Chain, and Abraham at Oxford University administered penicillin broth parenterally to mice infected with Streptococci, and later to patients, with remarkable success. The production of penicillin broth, containing about 10% penicillin, was scaled up significantly in the United Kingdom and United States to meet the requirements of the Allied Forces during the war.

Pure, crystalline penicillin was obtained by Oskar Wintersteiner in 1943, who found that several different penicillins were produced by the mold, including 2-pentenylpenicillin (penicillin F) and benzylpenicillin (penicillin G) (Scheme 70.1). X-ray structural analysis by Hodkin in 1945 confirmed the β -lactam structure, and the total synthesis of phenoxymethylpenicillin was accomplished in 1957 by John C. Sheehan. This chemical synthesis was, however, more tedious and expensive than the fermentative route.



Scheme 70.1 Natural and synthetic penicillins.

Oral bioavailability of natural penicillins is poor, but side-chain variations quickly led to semisynthetic penicillins with improved pharmacokinetics (PK) (Table 70.1). While growing *Penicillium notatum*, the broth always contains 6-aminopenicillamic acid, which can be isolated and acylated with various acids to prepare other, unnatural penicillin analogs.

The most remarkable property of β -lactam antibiotics is their low toxicity to humans. Even intravenous doses of several grams are tolerated. Because of their ability to acylate plasma proteins (e.g., albumin), however, β -lactam allergies occasionally result.

Penicillins kill bacteria by acylating a bacterial transpeptidase involved in the formation of cell walls. Because of the massive use of β -lactam antibiotics in the past decades, resistance is emerging and posing a real threat to our ability to fight bacterial infections [1].

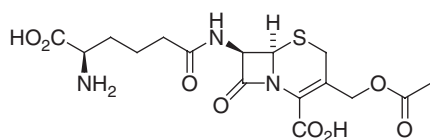
Most penicillins undergo β -lactam hydrolysis *in vivo* to lose their antibiotic activity. Because of their hydrophilicity, β -lactams are not oxidized to sulfones but mainly excreted renally, either unchanged or as hydrolyzed β -lactam.

A number of other β -lactams have been isolated, mainly from fungi, and used as leads for the development of antibiotics. These include the carbapenems, cephalosporins, and various β -lactamase inhibitors.

70.1

Cephalosporins

The biochemist Giuseppe Brotzu discovered the fungus *Cephalosporium acremonium* in 1945 in a sewer outlet near the Sardinian coast. This mold produces a number of β -lactam antibiotics that are weaker than penicillins but more resistant to bacterial penicillases. Of these, only cephalosporin C attained some therapeutic significance (Scheme 70.2).



Cephalosporin C

Scheme 70.2

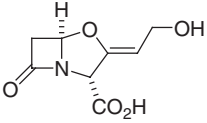
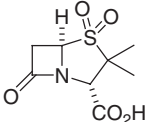
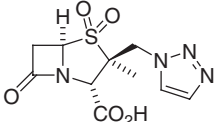
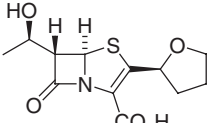
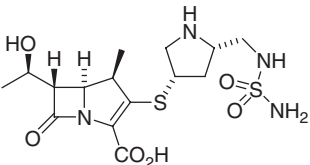
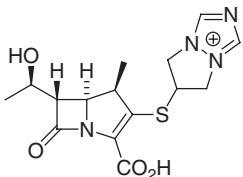
As in the case of penicillins, many synthetic cephalosporin analogs with improved PK and potency have been prepared by side-chain modification of the natural cephalosporins (Table 70.2).

Reference

1. (a) Oelschlaeger, P., Ai, N., DuPrez, K.T., Welsh, W.J., and Toney, J.H. (2010) Evolving carbapenemases: can medicinal chemists advance one step ahead of the coming storm?

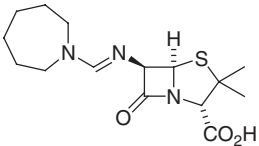
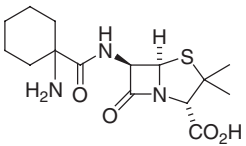
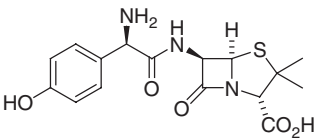
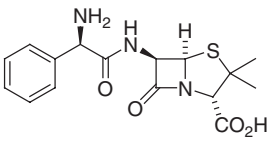
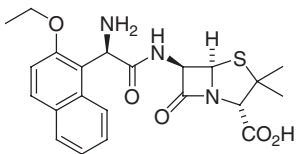
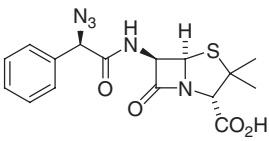
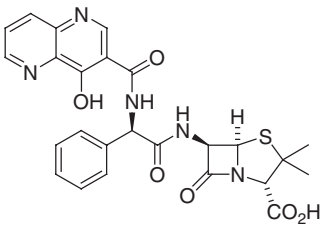
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Table 70.1 Penicillins, carbapenems, and related compounds. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | |
|---|--|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ $0.9 \pm 0.1 \text{ h}$ F $75 \pm 21\%$ pb 22% ur $43 \pm 14\%$ | V 0.21 ± 0.05 CL 3.6 ± 1.0 Mwt 199.2 PSA 87.1 \AA^2 $\log P$ -0.32 | CLAVULANIC ACID β -Lactamase inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ $1.0\text{--}1.7 \text{ h}$ F $-$ pb 38% ur $75\text{--}85\%$ | V 0.32 CL $3.7\text{--}5.1$ Mwt 233.2 PSA 100 \AA^2 $\log P$ 0.39 | SULBACTAM β -Lactamase inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ $0.7\text{--}1.2 \text{ h}^*$ F 0% pb $20\text{--}23\%$ ur 64% | V $0.2\text{--}0.5$ CL 3.1 Mwt 300.3 PSA 131 \AA^2 $\log P$ 0.60 | TAZOBACTAM *iv β -Lactamase inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ $0.9\text{--}1.3 \text{ h}$ F $20\text{--}30\%$ pb $90\text{--}95\%$ ur $14\text{--}20\%$ | V $-$ CL $-$ Mwt 285.3 PSA 112 \AA^2 $\log P$ -1.09 | FAROPENEM |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1 h^* F Low pb 8% ur $79 \pm 6\%^*$ | V 0.26 CL 4.1 Mwt 420.5 PSA 196 \AA^2 $\log P$ -3.65 | DORIPENEM *iv Metabolism: β -lactam hydrolysis, then conjugation with glycine and taurine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1 h^* F $-$ pb 8% ur $47\text{--}53\%^*$ | V 0.2 CL 2.5 Mwt 351.4 PSA 99.6 \AA^2 $\log P$ -4.12 | BIAPENEM *iv |

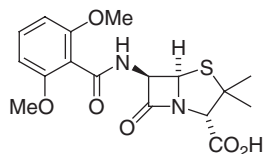
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 3.8 h (iv) F Low pb 85–95% ur 70–78% | V 0.12 CL 0.45 Mwt 475.5 PSA 182 Å ² log P –1.07 | ERTAPENEM Metabolism: β -lactam hydrolysis |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h (iv) F Low pb 13% ur 65% (iv) | V 0.3 CL 3.9 Mwt 383.5 PSA 135 Å ² log P –1.23 | MEROPENEM |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h (iv) F – pb – ur 30% | V 0.19 CL 2.6 Mwt 339.4 PSA 130 Å ² log P –2.85 | PANIPENEM |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9±0.1 h F Low pb <20% ur 69±15% | V 0.23±0.05 CL 2.9±0.3 Mwt 2994. PSA 139 Å ² log P –2.78 | IMIPENEM Values for simultaneous administration with cilastatin |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.7 h* F 37–42%* pb – ur 16%* | V 0.25* CL – Mwt 288.3 PSA 155 Å ² log P –1.44 | RITIPENEM *acid (ritipenem) on oral dosing of ester; no ester can be detected in plasma |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7 h (iv) F – pb 9% ur 70% (iv) | V 0.23 CL 1.9 Mwt 537.6 PSA 218 Å ² log P –5.00 | TOMOPENEM |

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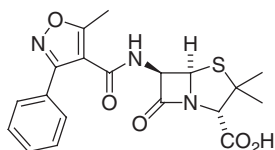
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h F Low pb – ur 63% | V 0.3–0.4 CL 5–6 Mwt 325.4 PSA 98.5 Å ² log P 2.33 | AMDINOCILLIN Prodrug: amdinocillin pivoxil |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5–0.8 h F High pb 18–30% ur 24–91% | V – CL 7 Mwt 341.4 PSA 138 Å ² log P 1.21 | CYCLACILLIN |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7±0.3 h F 93±10% pb 18% ur 86±8% | V 0.21±0.03 CL 2.6±0.4 Mwt 365.4 PSA 158 Å ² log P 0.88 | AMOXICILLIN Metabolism: lactam and thioaminal hydrolysis, formation of diketopiperazine |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3±0.2 h F 62±17% pb 18±2% ur 82±10% | V 0.28±0.07 CL 1.7 Mwt 349.4 PSA 113 Å ² log P –0.87 | AMPICILLIN Prodrug esters: lenampicillin (about 20% higher F), pivampicillin, talampicillin |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0±0.2 h F 36% pb 89–90% ur 27±5% | V 0.35±0.09 CL 7.5±1.9 Mwt 414.5 PSA 121 Å ² log P 2.60 | NAFICILLIN |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.6–1.1 h F 57–64% pb – ur 37–40% | V 0.4–0.5 CL – Mwt 375.4 PSA 136.5 Å ² log P 2.30 | AZIDOCILLIN Metabolism in animals: reduction of azide to amine (minor extent), β -lactam hydrolysis |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2±0.2 h* F – pb 38% ur 18±3% | V 0.19±0.03 CL 2.0±0.5 Mwt 521.5 PSA 187 Å ² log P 3.67 | APALCILLIN *iv |

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| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9±0.1 h F Low pb 16–22% ur 71±14% | V 0.18±0.03 CL 2.6±0.7 Mwt 517.6 PSA 182 Å ² $\log P$ 1.00 | PIPERACILLIN |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8–1.5 h F Low pb 28±6% ur 65±9% | V 0.26 CL 2.5 Mwt 461.5 PSA 173 Å ² $\log P$ 0.83 | AZLOCILLIN |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.3±0.4 h F 0% pb 29±13% ur 45±6% | V 0.20±0.06 CL 1.44 Mwt 539.6 PSA 207 Å ² $\log P$ 0.33 | MEZLOCILLIN |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 30–40 min F <30% pb 45–65% ur – | V 0.3–0.4 CL 6.9 Mwt 334.4 PSA 112 Å ² $\log P$ 1.92 | BENZYL PENICILLIN, PENICILLIN G Diethylaminoethyl ester of benzylpenicillin: penethamate |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5–1.0 h F 40–60% pb 55–78% ur 20–40% | V 0.73 CL Mwt 350.4 PSA 121 Å ² $\log P$ 1.94 | PHENOXYMETHYL- PENICILLIN, PENICILLIN V |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9 h (iv) F 86% pb 75% ur 48% | V 0.30 CL 4.2 Mwt 364.4 PSA 121 Å ² $\log P$ 2.29 | PHENETHICILLIN |

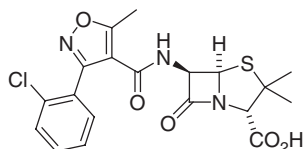
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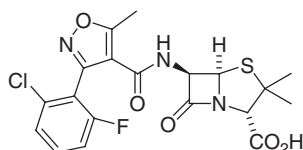
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 0.6–0.9 h* | V | 0.3–0.4 | METHICILLIN |
| F | – | CL | 6.1±1.3 | *iv |
| pb | 57% | Mwt | 380.4 | |
| ur | 88±17% | PSA | 130 Å ² | |
| | | log P | 1.02 | |



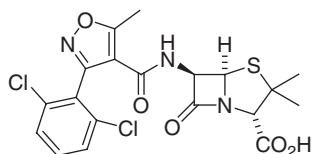
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 0.6±0.2 h | V | 0.33±0.09 | OXACILLIN |
| F | 33% | CL | 6.1±1.7 | |
| pb | 92.2±0.6% | Mwt | 401.4 | |
| ur | 46±4% | PSA | 138 Å ² | |
| | | log P | 2.55 | |



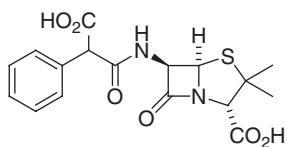
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 0.6±0.1 h | V | 0.09±0.02 | CLOXACILLIN |
| F | 43±16% | CL | 2.2±0.5 | |
| pb | 94.6±0.6% | Mwt | 435.9 | |
| ur | 75±14% | PSA | 138 Å ² | |
| | | log P | 2.38 | |



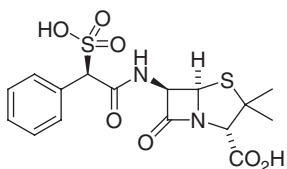
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 53 min | V | 0.19 | FLUCLOXACILLIN, FLOXACILLIN |
| F | 55% | CL | 2.4 | |
| pb | 95% | Mwt | 453.9 | |
| ur | 35–76% | PSA | 138 Å ² | |
| | | log P | 2.89 | |



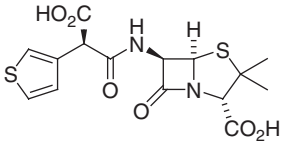
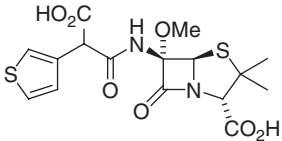
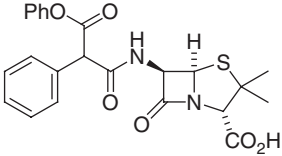
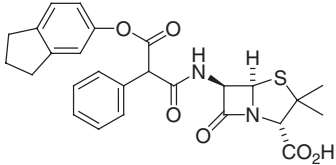
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| $t_{1/2}$ | 0.7±0.1 h | V | 0.09±0.02 | DICLOXACILLIN |
| F | 68±18% | CL | 1.6±0.3 | |
| pb | 96% | Mwt | 470.3 | |
| ur | 60±7% | PSA | 138 Å ² | |
| | | log P | 3.10 | |



| | | | | |
|-----------|-----------|-------|--------------------|---------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 1.0–1.5 h | V | 0.18 | CARBENICILLIN |
| F | 30–40% | CL | 0.68–1.9 | |
| pb | 48% | Mwt | 378.4 | |
| ur | 80–99% | PSA | 149 Å ² | |
| | | log P | 1.13 | |

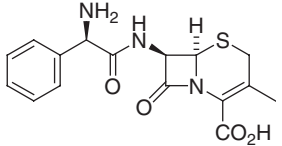
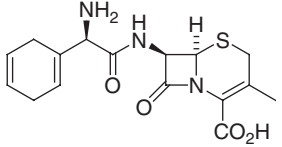


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|-----------|------------|-------|--------------------|---------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 1.2±0.2 h* | V | 0.15 | SULBENICILLIN |
| F | Low | CL | 1.6 | *iv |
| pb | 50% | Mwt | 414.5 | |
| ur | 80% | PSA | 175 Å ² | |
| | | log P | –0.51 | |

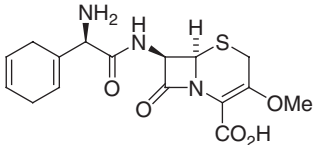
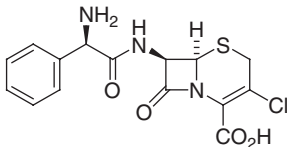
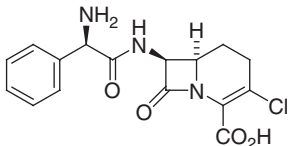
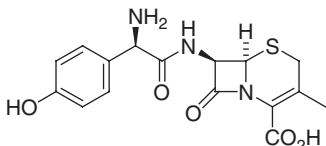
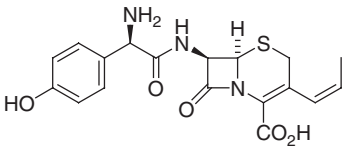
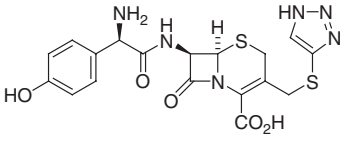
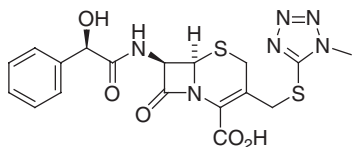
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|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2±0.2 h <i>F</i> Low <i>pb</i> 55–65% <i>ur</i> 77±12% | <i>V</i> 0.21±0.04 <i>CL</i> 1.6±0.3 <i>Mwt</i> 384.4 <i>PSA</i> 178 Å ² <i>log P</i> 1.24 | TICARCILLIN |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–6 h (iv) <i>F</i> – <i>pb</i> 75–88% <i>ur</i> 67–72% | <i>V</i> 0.27–0.30 <i>CL</i> 0.4–0.7 <i>Mwt</i> 414.5 <i>PSA</i> 187 Å ² <i>log P</i> 7.19 | TEMOCILLIN |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2 h <i>F</i> 43%* <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 454.5 <i>PSA</i> 138 Å ² <i>log P</i> 2.85 | CARFECILLIN *acid (carbenicillin) on oral dosing of carfecillin |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2 h <i>F</i> 69%* <i>pb</i> – <i>ur</i> – | <i>V</i> – <i>CL</i> – <i>Mwt</i> 494.6 <i>PSA</i> 138 Å ² <i>log P</i> 3.58 | CARINDACILLIN *acid (carbenicillin) on oral dosing of carindacillin |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; *F*, oral bioavailability; *pb*, plasma protein binding; *ur*, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; *V*, volume of distribution; *CL*, clearance; *Mwt*, molecular weight; *PSA*, polar surface area.

Table 70.2 Cephalosporins and related compounds. *V* in l kg^{−1}; *CL* in ml min^{−1} kg^{−1}; *Mwt* in g mol^{−1}.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|------------|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9±0.2 h <i>F</i> 90±9% <i>pb</i> 14±3% <i>ur</i> 91±18% | <i>V</i> 0.26±0.03 <i>CL</i> 4.3±1.1 <i>Mwt</i> 347.4 <i>PSA</i> 138 Å ² <i>log P</i> 0.35 | CEPHALEXIN |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9±0.3 h <i>F</i> 94±12% <i>pb</i> 14±3% <i>ur</i> 86±10% | <i>V</i> 0.46±0.07 <i>CL</i> 4.8±0.6 <i>Mwt</i> 349.4 <i>PSA</i> 138 Å ² <i>log P</i> 0.48 | CEPHRADINE |

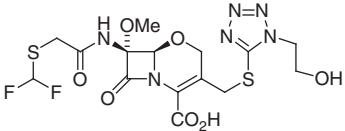
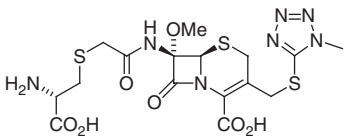
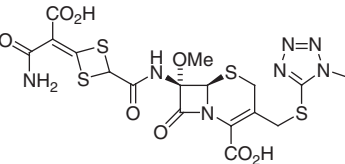
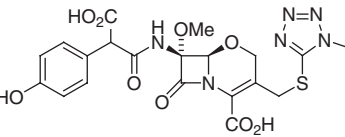
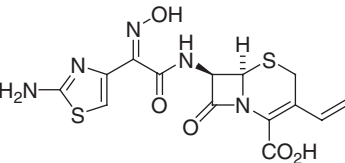
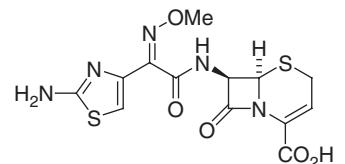
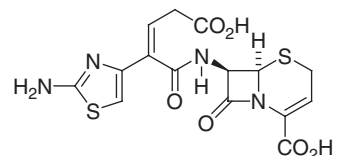
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|---|---|---|------------------------------|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.0 h F 100% pb 10% ur 71% | V 0.25 CL 3.1 Mwt 365.4 PSA 147 Å ² log P 1.46 | CEFROXADINE |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.7±0.3 h F 52±17% pb 25% ur 52±17% | V 0.36 CL 6.1±1.5 Mwt 367.8 PSA 138 Å ² log P 0.14 | CEFACTOR |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2±0.3 h F 94±16% pb 25% ur 94±16% | V 0.32±0.10 CL 1.7 Mwt 349.8 PSA 113 Å ² log P -1.60 | LORACARBEF |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2±0.2 h F 100% pb 20% ur 93±4% | V 0.24±0.05 CL 2.9±0.7 Mwt 363.4 PSA 158 Å ² log P -0.25 | CEFADROXIL |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5±0.4 h F 90±10% pb 40±4% ur 73±7% | V 0.22±0.02 CL 3.0±0.4 Mwt 389.4 PSA 158 Å ² log P -0.60 | CEFPROZIL cis/trans 9 : 1 |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.2–1.4 h F 50–75% pb 60% ur 42–60% | V 0.22 CL 3.3 Mwt 462.5 PSA 225 Å ² log P -1.07 | CEFATRIZINE |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8±0.1 h F 96±3% pb 74% ur 96±3% | V 0.16±0.05 CL 2.8±1.0 Mwt 462.5 PSA 201 Å ² log P -0.04 | CEFAMANDOLE |

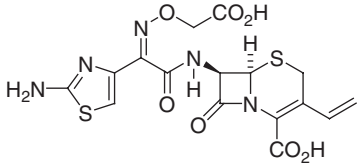
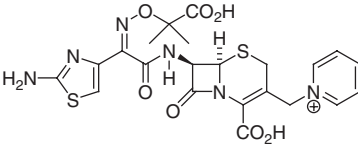
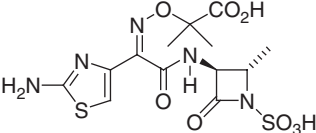
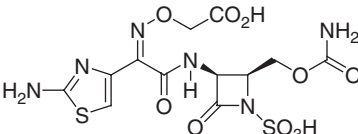
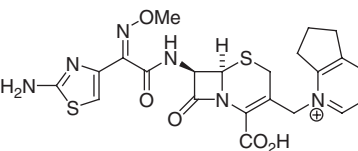
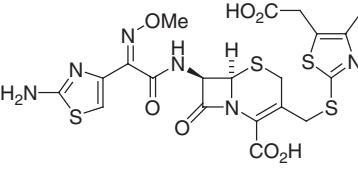
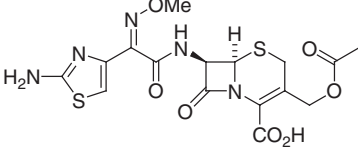
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| | $t_{1/2}$ 4.4±0.8 h F – pb 98% ur 88±6% | V 0.11±0.01 CL 0.32±0.06 Mwt 542.6 PSA 264 Å ² $\log P$ –2.29 | CEFONICID |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.6±0.5 h F – pb 80–82% ur 84±3% | V 0.14±0.04 CL 0.26–0.66 Mwt 519.6 PSA 244 Å ² $\log P$ –0.36 | CEFORANIDE |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.7±0.2 h F – pb 62±4% ur 48±7% | V 0.21±0.06 CL 6.9±2.0 Mwt 423.5 PSA 177 Å ² $\log P$ –0.41 | CEPHALIPIRIN Metabolism: O-deacetylation, then lactonization |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9 h (iv) F Low pb 27%* ur – | V 0.41 CL 6.3 Mwt 339.3 PSA 162 Å ² $\log P$ –1.60 | CEPHRACETRILE *rabbit |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.6±0.3 h F – pb 71±3% ur 52% | V 0.26±0.11 CL 6.7±1.7 Mwt 396.4 PSA 167 Å ² $\log P$ 0.09 | CEPHALOTHIN |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.8±0.1 h F Low pb 73% ur 79±5% | V 0.25±0.10 CL 3.3 Mwt 427.5 PSA 202 Å ² $\log P$ 0.00 | CEFOXITIN |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5 h (iv) F Low pb 20% ur – | V 0.46 CL 3.3 Mwt 416.5 PSA 90.6 Å ² $\log P$ –4.26 | CEPHALORIDINE |

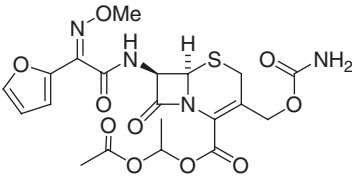
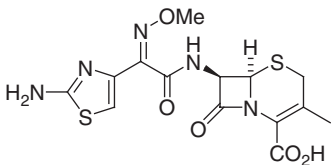
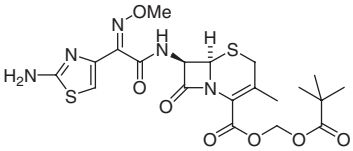
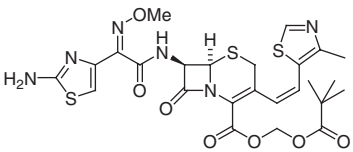
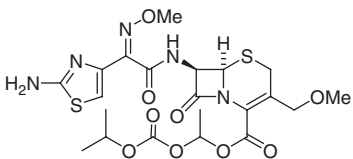
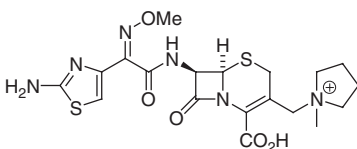
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|--|--|--|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.8 h F – pb 15% ur – | V 0.28 CL 1.85 Mwt 533.6 PSA 188.1 Å ² $\log P$ –5.72 | CEFSULODIN |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–3 h* F Low pb <20%* ur – | V 0.37* CL – Mwt 684.7 PSA 207.5 Å ² $\log P$ –4.79 | CEFTAROLINE FOSAMIL *dephosphorylated metabolite (ceftaroline) on iv dosing of prodrug |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h* F 40%* pb – ur <70%* | V 0.13 CL 2.6 Mwt 661.7 PSA 268 Å ² $\log P$ 2.85 | CEFANEL DALOXATE *acid (cefcanel) on oral dosing of ester Diester prodrug of cefcanel (hydroxyacid) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.8±0.4 h F >90% pb 89±2% ur 80±16% | V 0.14±0.04 CL 0.95±0.17 Mwt 454.5 PSA 235 Å ² $\log P$ –0.70 | CEFAZOLIN |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6±0.2 h F – pb 93% ur – | V 0.15 CL – Mwt 548.4 PSA 212 Å ² $\log P$ –0.42 | CEFazedONE Similar PK as cefazolin |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.5±0.3 h F 80±20% pb 70% ur 80±13% | V 0.18±0.04 CL 1.45±0.10 Mwt 471.5 PSA 239 Å ² $\log P$ –0.62 | CEFMETAZOLE |

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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 50 min F – pb 29% ur 47% | V 0.2 CL 4.1 Mwt 496.5 PSA 220 Å ² $\log P$ –2.43 | FLOMOXEF |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.4 h F Low pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 519.6 PSA 279 Å ² $\log P$ –0.68 | CEFMINOX |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.6±1.0 h F – pb 85±4% ur 67±11% | V 0.14±0.03 CL 0.23 Mwt 575.6 PSA 316 Å ² $\log P$ 2.34 | CEFOTETAN Metabolism: isomerization to 1,2-thiazole (isothiazole; nucleophilic attack of amide-NH at S) |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.1±0.7 h F 3% pb 53–67% ur 76±12% | V 0.25±0.08 CL 1.0 Mwt 520.5 PSA 232 Å ² $\log P$ –2.56 | MOXALACTAM, LATAMOXEF Mixture of diastereomers |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7±0.6 h F 16–21% pb 60–70% ur 12–18% | V 0.27±0.08 CL 0.5±0.2 Mwt 395.4 PSA 212 Å ² $\log P$ –1.78 | CEFDINIR |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.8±0.7 h F Low pb 28±5% ur 93±8% | V 0.36±0.19 CL 1.1 Mwt 383.4 PSA 201 Å ² $\log P$ 0.59 | CEFTIZOXIME |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5 h F 100% pb 62–64% ur 7–26% | V 0.21±0.03 CL/F 1.3 Mwt 410.4 PSA 216 Å ² $\log P$ –3.19 | CEFTIBUTEN |

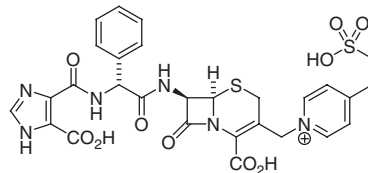
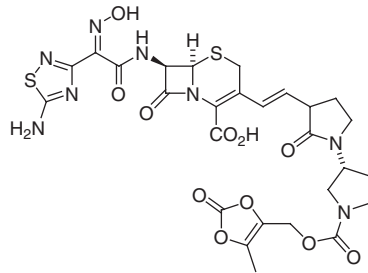
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|  | $t_{1/2}$ 3.0±0.4 h F 47±15% pb 67±1% ur 41±7% | V 0.30±0.03 CL 1.3±0.2 Mwt 453.5 PSA 238 Å ² log P 1.00 | CEFIXIME |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6±0.1 h F Low pb 21±6% ur 84±4% | V 0.23±0.02 CL 1.05 Mwt 547.6 PSA 188.4 Å ² log P -4.98 | CEFTAZIDIME |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7±0.2 h F <1% pb 56% ur 68±8% | V 0.16±0.02 CL 1.3±0.1 Mwt 435.4 PSA 238 Å ² log P -0.66 | AZTREONAM No metabolites identified |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6–1.8 h* F – pb 28% ur 75–81% | V 0.18 CL 1.5 Mwt 466.4 PSA 291 Å ² log P -2.26 | CARUMONAM *iv |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7–2.2 h* F – pb 10% ur 80–90% | V 0.24 CL 1.9 Mwt 515.6 PSA 151.1 Å ² log P -4.08 | CEFPIROME *iv |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.7–4.2 h* F – pb 82% ur 80% | V 0.054 CL 0.61 Mwt 584.7 PSA 304 Å ² log P 2.55 | CEFODIZIME *iv |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1±0.3 h F Low pb 36±3% ur 55±10% | V 0.23±0.06 CL 3.7±0.6 Mwt 455.5 PSA 227 Å ² log P 1.20 | CEFOTAXIME Active metabolite: desacetyl ($t_{1/2}$ 1.5 h) |

| | | | |
|---|--|--|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.7±0.6 h* F 68%* pb 33±6%* ur 96±10%* | V 0.20±0.04 CL 0.94* Mwt 510.5 PSA 214 Å ² log P 0.85 | CEFUROXIME AXETIL *acid (cefuroxime) on oral dosing of ester Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.1–2.9 h* F – pb 22% ur 63–99%* | V 0.3–0.4 CL 1.7–2.3 Mwt 397.4 PSA 201 Å ² log P –0.24 | CEFETAMET *iv |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.5±0.3 h* F 45±13%* pb – ur 27–55%* | V 0.3* CL 2.9–6.4* Mwt 511.6 PSA 216 Å ² log P 2.44 | CEFETAMET PIVOXIL *acid (cefetamet) on oral dosing of ester Prodrug of cefetamet (acid), no prodrug can be detected in plasma after po dosing |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.6±0.4 h* F 14%* pb 88%* ur – | V 0.14±0.03* CL 0.1–0.3* Mwt 620.7 PSA 257 Å ² log P 3.35 | CEFDITOREN PIVOXIL *acid (cefditoren) on oral dosing of ester |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 2.3±0.3 h* F 52±5%* pb 27±4%* ur 81±5%* | V 0.46±0.03* CL 2.4±0.1* Mwt 557.6 PSA 235 Å ² log P 2.17 | CEFPODOXIME PROXETIL *acid (cef) on oral dosing of ester |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1.9–2.5 h* F – pb 16–22% ur 76–85%* | V 0.28 CL 2.2 Mwt 481.6 PSA 147.2 Å ² log P –4.40 | CEFEPIME *iv Metabolism: epimerization, N-dealkylation (to N-methylpyrrolidine) |

(continued overleaf)

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|--|--|---|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.6–1.1 h F – pb 40% ur 82% | V – CL 6.7 ± 1.5 Mwt 525.6 PSA 251 \AA^2 log P 0.23 | CEFOTIAM Prodrug: cefotiam hexetil; F : 46% of cefotiam after oral dosing of prodrug |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7.3 \pm 1.6 h F Low pb 90–95% ur 49 \pm 13% | V 0.16 \pm 0.03 CL 0.24 \pm 0.06 Mwt 554.6 PSA 288 \AA^2 log P –0.25 | CEFTRIAZONE |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1.1–1.6 h* F – pb 50–60% ur 81%* | V 0.23 CL 3.3 Mwt 511.6 PSA 270 \AA^2 log P –0.91 | CEFMENOXIME * _{iv} |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2.2 \pm 0.3 h F – pb 89–93% ur 29 \pm 4% | V 0.14 \pm 0.03 CL 1.2 \pm 0.2 Mwt 645.7 PSA 266 \AA^2 log P 1.43 | CEFOPERAZONE Metabolism: hydrolysis of oxalamide (CON–CONH) |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5.4 \pm 1.4 h* F – pb 95–99% ur 17–22%* | V 0.15 \pm 0.03 CL 0.43 \pm 0.08 Mwt 612.6 PSA 263 \AA^2 log P 0.17 | CEFPIRAMIDE * _{iv} |

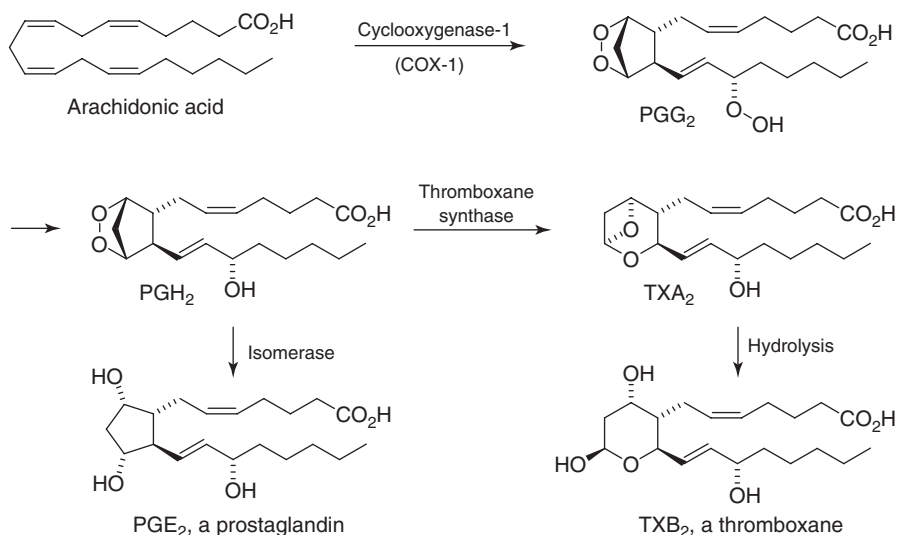
| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|------------|-------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.9 h (iv) | V | 0.30 ± 0.05 | CEFPIMIZOLE |
| | F | — | CL | 1.7 ± 0.3 | |
| | pb | — | Mwt | 671.7 | |
| | ur | 80% | PSA | 240.0 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log P | −5.68 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3.3 h* | V | 0.27 | CEFTOBIPROLE |
| | F | — | CL | 1.5 | MEDOCARIL |
| | pb | 16–38% | Mwt | 690.7 | *amine (ceftobiprole) on iv |
| | ur | 70% | PSA | 310 \AA^2 | dosing of carbamate |
| | | | log P | −1.02 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

71

Prostaglandin Analogs

Arachidonic acid is the biochemical precursor of the prostaglandins, prostacyclins, thromboxanes, and leukotrienes (Scheme 71.1). These hormones are carboxylic acids with 20 carbon atoms, also called *eicosanoids*. In 1930, the American gynecologists Raphael Kurzrok and Charles Lieb discovered that semen contained these substances, which cause the contraction or relaxation of uterine muscle. Since then, eicosanoids were found to be involved in a broad spectrum of biological activities.



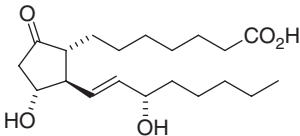
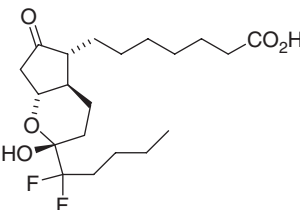
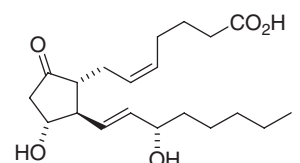
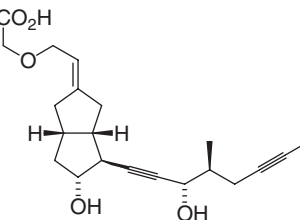
Scheme 71.1 Biosynthesis of eicosanoids.

Like the steroid hormones, eicosanoids are extremely potent. Oral doses of misoprostol, an analog of prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) suitable for the treatment of gastric ulcers, range from only 0.4 to 0.8 mg daily.

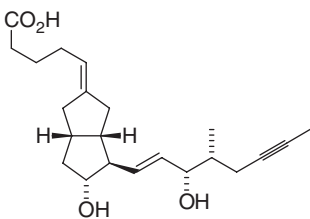
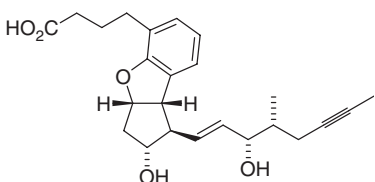
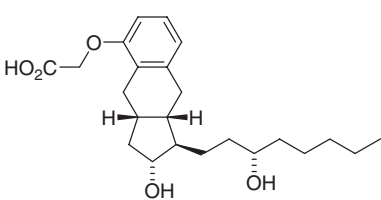
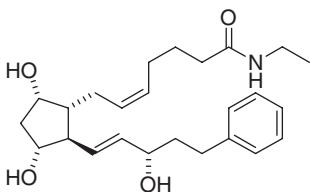
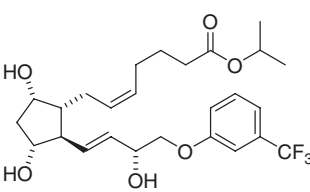
Because natural prostaglandins have low oral bioavailabilities and short half-lives, synthetic analogs with improved pharmacokinetics (PK) have been prepared (Table 71.1). These are used as abortifacients, gastroprotectants, and antithrombotics (e.g., for treatment of acute myocardial infarction).

Typical metabolic transformations include oxidation of hydroxyl groups, reduction of ketones, hydroxylation, and oxidative degradation. As for most nonhalogenated alkanes, these transformations proceed quickly, and most prostaglandin analogs undergo extensive first-pass metabolism.

Table 71.1 Prostaglandin analogs. V in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

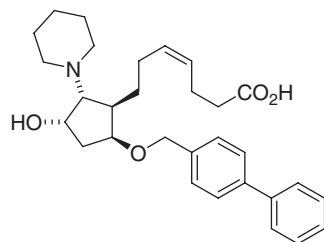
| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|-------|---------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 5–10 min | V | 0.8 | ALPROSTADIL, PGE ₁ |
| | F | 14% | CL | 20 | Treatment of erectile dysfunction |
| | pb | 93% | Mwt | 354.5 | Metabolism: oxidation of allylic OH to ketone |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 94.8 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.75 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1–2 h* | V | – | LUBIPROSTONE |
| | F | Low | CL | – | *reduced difluoroketone |
| | pb | 94% | Mwt | 390.5 | Laxative |
| | ur | 0% | PSA | 83.8 Å ² | Metabolism: reduction of difluoroketone to alcohol |
| | | | log P | 2.85 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1–5 min | V | – | DINOPROSTONE |
| | F | – | CL | – | Abortifacient |
| | pb | 73% | Mwt | 352.5 | Metabolism: hydrogenation of double bonds, oxidation of exocyclic alcohol to ketone, oxidation of methyl to CO ₂ H, oxidative degradation of carboxyalkyl group |
| | ur | Low | PSA | 94.8 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 2.97 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 2.0±0.5 h | V | 0.08 | CICAPROST |
| | F | 100% | CL | 3.8 | Inhibitor of platelet aggregation, vasodilator |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 374.5 | |
| | ur | 60% | PSA | 87 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 1.94 | |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|---|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.3–0.5 h F 15–20% pb 60% ur 0% | V 0.6–0.8 CL 16–20 Mwt 360.5 PSA 77.8 Å ² $\log P$ 3.28 | ILOPROST Inhibitor of platelet aggregation, vasodilator; mixture of diastereomers Metabolism: oxidation and hydroxylation of alkyl chains, oxidation of allylic OH to ketone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1 h F – pb – ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 398.5 PSA 87.0 Å ² $\log P$ 2.87 | BERAPROST Antithrombotic, vasodilator Metabolism: oxidative degradation of arylbutyric acid to arylacetic acid, propargylic hydroxylation, isomerization of allylic alcohol to saturated ketone |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 0.9 h (iv) F – pb 91% ur 4% (iv) | V 0.8–1.1 CL 11 Mwt 390.5 PSA 87.0 Å ² $\log P$ 3.50 | TREPROSTINIL Antihypertensive Metabolism: glucuronidation, oxidation of octyl chain |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 45 min (iv) F – pb 88% ur – | V 0.67 CL 25 Mwt 415.6 PSA 89.8 Å ² $\log P$ 1.98 | BIMATOPROST Lowers intraocular pressure, antiglaucoma agent Metabolism: N-deethylation, glucuronidation, hydrolysis of amide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 17–86 min* F Negligible pb – ur <2%* | V 2.6* (rat) CL – Mwt 500.6 PSA 96.2 Å ² $\log P$ 3.98 | TRAVOPROST *acid on oral dosing of ester Lowers intraocular pressure, antiglaucoma agent Metabolism of acid: hydrogenation of double bond, oxidation to 15-ketone, oxidative degradation of upper side chain |

| | | | |
|--|---|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 17 min* F – pb 87%* ur – | V 0.16 CL – Mwt 432.6 PSA 87.0 Å ² $\log P$ 3.65 | LATANOPROST *acid Lowers intraocular pressure, antiglaucoma agent |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 14 min* F – pb – ur – | V – CL – Mwt 424.6 PSA 83.8 Å ² $\log P$ 4.63 | UNOPROSTONE ISOPROPYL *acid Lowers intraocular pressure, antiglaucoma agent |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2 h F – pb 20–30% ur Traces | V 17 CL – Mwt 465.6 PSA 138 Å ² $\log P$ 1.52 | SULPROSTONE Abortifacient Metabolism: elimination of water (to yield cyclopentenone), hydrogenation of <i>trans</i> -olefin and cyclodehydration (to yield pyran), hydrolysis of acylsulfonamide to CO ₂ H |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.5±0.4 h* F >80%* pb 81–89%* ur 1–4%* | V 14±8* CL 240±100* Mwt 382.5 PSA 83.8 Å ² $\log P$ 3.80 | MISOPROSTOL *acid on oral dosing of ester Antiulcerative; prodrug, not detectable in plasma after oral dose; mixture of two diastereomers Metabolism: oxidative degradation of alkyl chains |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4–49 min F 2% pb – ur – | V 0.16 CL 13.2 Mwt 401.0 PSA 77.8 Å ² $\log P$ 4.28 | NOCLOPROST Gastroprotective |

(continued overleaf)



| | | | | |
|-----------|------------|---------|---------------------|------------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 1.1–1.4 h* | V | 0.8–0.9 | VAPIPROST |
| F | – | CL | 7.3–10.3 | *iv |
| pb | – | Mwt | 477.6 | Thromboxane antagonist |
| ur | <1% | PSA | 70.0 Å ² | |
| | | log P | 5.68 | |

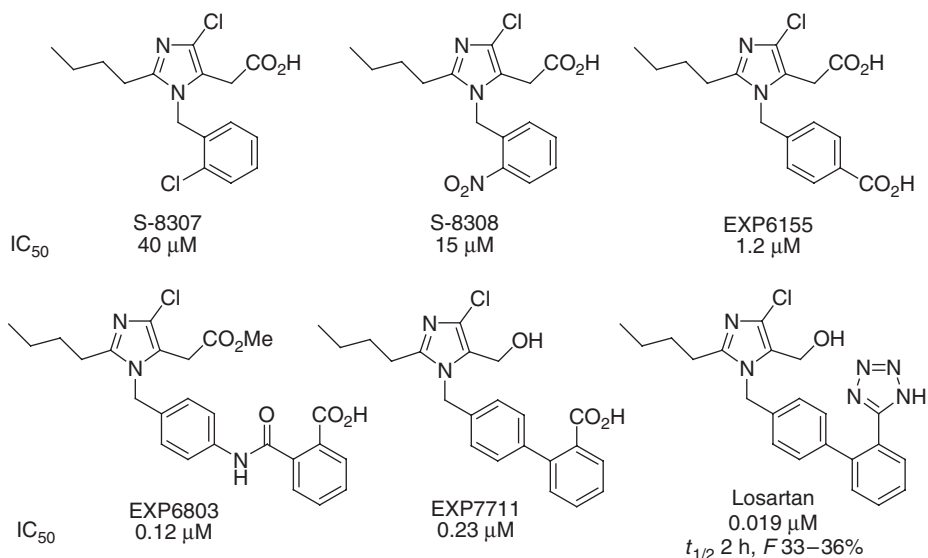
$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area; PGE₁, prostaglandin E₁.

72

Sartans

One of the strategies to treat hypertension (“the silent killer”) is the administration of an angiotensin II antagonist (Chapter 53). Since the 1970s, a number of peptidomimetics were prepared for this purpose, but all the antagonists found (e.g., saralasin) were also partial agonists and useless because of their lack of oral bioavailability.

The first breakthrough in the development of a small-molecule angiotensin II antagonist was achieved in 1982 by Furakawa at Takeda, Japan [1]. His group patented a series of imidazole acetic acids, including the compounds S-8307 and S-8308 (Scheme 72.1), which were weak but selective angiotensin II antagonists devoid of agonistic activity. These imidazole derivatives were used as leads by David J. Carini and John V. Duncia at DuPont, who in 1983 started to optimize their potency and pharmacokinetic (PK) properties to finally arrive at losartan in March 1986. The main reason for DuPont’s endeavor and final success was that the newly hired, unexperienced pharmacologist Pancras C. Wong tested S-8307 in rats at an unusually high concentration (100 mg kg^{-1}). This experiment clearly proved that S-8307 was indeed a selective, competitive angiotensin II antagonist, which worked *in vivo*. Similar experiments at lower concentrations, which had probably been conducted at Takeda and other companies, would not have revealed any antihypertensive activity of S-8307.



Scheme 72.1 Development of losartan.

Because the pharma team at DuPont was small and unexperienced, they opted for a collaboration with Merck & Co. to push forward the clinical development and marketing of the new drug. Losartan was approved by the FDA in 1995 and generated sales of more than \$3 billion by 2005. Since then, a number of other angiotensin II antagonists have been developed as antihypertensive drugs (Table 72.1). These usually show fewer side effects than the angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors.

Most sartans have low oral bioavailability, mainly because of poor absorption from the GI tract. These molecules are too large and too hydrophilic (large polar surface area (PSA)) to be efficiently absorbed. To enhance their lipophilicity, esters have been occasionally used as prodrugs.

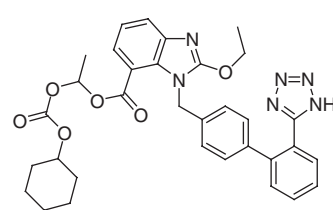
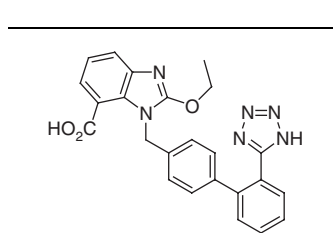
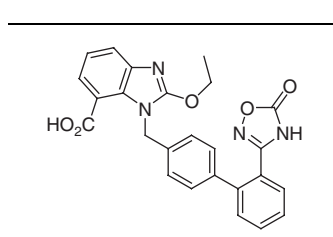
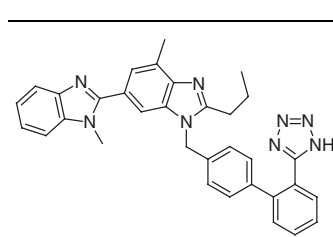
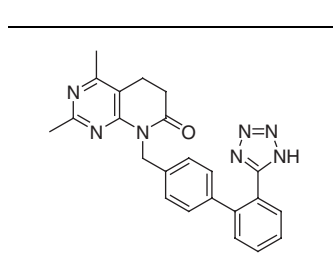
Reference

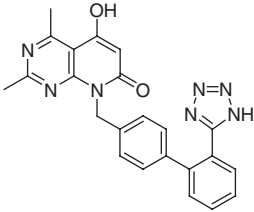
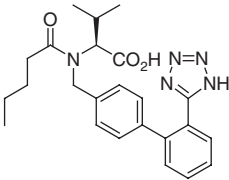
1. (a) Bhardwaj, G. (2006) How the anti-hypertensive losartan was discovered. *Expert Opin. Drug Discov.*, **1**, 609–618; (b) Timmermans, P.B., Wong, P.C., Chiu, A.T., Herblin, W.F., Benfield, P., Carini, D.J., Lee, R.J., Wexler, R.R., Saye, J.A.M., and Smith, R.D. (1993) Angiotensin II receptors and angiotensin II receptor antagonists. *Pharmacol. Rev.*, **45**, 205–251.

Table 72.1 Antihypertensive angiotensin II receptor antagonists (sartans). V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ $6.8 \pm 2.3 \text{ h}$ F $13 \pm 7\%^*$ pb 98% ur $2\text{--}3\%$ | V 0.2 CL $1.7\text{--}2.0$ Mwt 424.5 PSA 116 \AA^2 $\log P$ 4.96 | EPROSARTAN *owing to poor absorption from GI tract Metabolism: acyl glucuronidation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ $11\text{--}15 \text{ h}$ F $60\text{--}80\%$ pb $90\text{--}96\%$ ur $1\text{--}2\%$ | V $0.8\text{--}1.3$ CL $2.4\text{--}2.7$ Mwt 428.5 PSA 87.1 \AA^2 $\log P$ 4.50 | IRBESARTAN Metabolism: hydroxylation at butyl and cyclopentane, glucuronidation at tetrazole |
| | $t_{1/2}$ $2.0 \pm 0.5 \text{ h}$ F $33\text{--}36\%$ pb 98.7% ur $9\text{--}12\%$ | V $0.4\text{--}0.5$ CL $6.8\text{--}8.5$ Mwt 422.9 PSA 92.5 \AA^2 $\log P$ 3.46 | LOSARTAN Metabolism: oxidation of alcohol to carboxylic acid, hydroxylation of butyl, glucuronidation of tetrazole |
| | $t_{1/2}$ $7 \pm 3 \text{ h}$ F $-$ pb 99.8% ur 55% | V $0.13\text{--}0.17$ CL 0.6 Mwt 436.9 PSA 105 \AA^2 $\log P$ 4.79 | EXP 3174 Main active metabolite of losartan |
| | $t_{1/2}$ $10\text{--}15 \text{ h}^*$ F $26\%^*$ pb $99\%^*$ ur $35\text{--}50\%^*$ | V $0.21\text{--}0.28^*$ CL $-$ Mwt 558.6 PSA 154 \AA^2 $\log P$ 5.23 | OLMESARTAN MEDOXOMIL Prodrug of olmesartan (carboxylic acid) *acid after oral administration of ester |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10±3 h* <i>F</i> 15–40%* pb >99%* ur 33–50%* | <i>V</i> 0.13* CL 0.4–3.2* Mwt 610.7 PSA 143 Å ² log <i>P</i> 7.79 | CANDESARTAN CILEXETIL *acid (candesartan) on oral dosing of ester Further metabolism: O-deethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 9–13 h <i>F</i> 15–40% pb >99% ur 33–50% | <i>V</i> 0.13 CL 0.4–3.2 Mwt 440.5 PSA 114 Å ² log <i>P</i> 5.01 | CANDESARTAN |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 11 h* <i>F</i> 60%* pb >99% ur 15%* | <i>V</i> 0.25 CL – Mwt 456.5 PSA 115 Å ² log <i>P</i> 5.63 | AZILSARTAN *drug on oral dosing of prodrug azilsartan medoxomil Metabolism: O-deethylation, decarboxylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 24 h <i>F</i> 42–57% pb 99.5% ur <1% | <i>V</i> 6.6–7.3 CL 12.3 Mwt 514.6 PSA 72.9 Å ² log <i>P</i> 7.73 | TELMISARTAN Metabolism: glucuronidation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 5.3±0.6 h <i>F</i> 60–79% pb 99.8% ur – | <i>V</i> – CL – Mwt 411.5 PSA 101 Å ² log <i>P</i> 3.42 | TASOSARTAN Metabolism: 4-hydroxylation of piperidin-2-one, then elimination of water, hydroxylation of 7-CH ₃ , conversion to enoltasosartan (see below) |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------------|---------|---------------------|------------------------------|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 41 ± 2 h | V | – | ENOLTASOSARTAN |
| | F | – | CL | – | Main active metabolite of |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 425.4 | tasosartan |
| | ur | – | PSA | 121 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log P | 2.96 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 7.3 ± 2.2 h | V | 0.24 | VALSARTAN |
| | F | 23–39% | CL | 0.51 | Metabolism: hydroxylation at |
| | pb | 85–99% | Mwt | 435.5 | CH_2CH_3 |
| | ur | 7–30% | PSA | 112 \AA^2 | |
| | | | log P | 4.74 | |

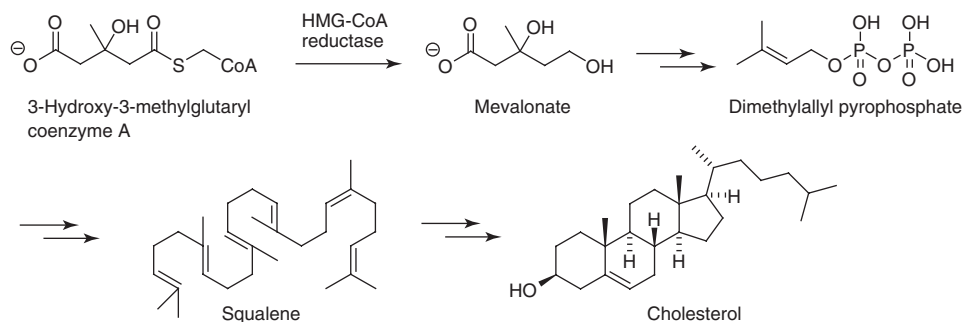
$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

73

Statins

Numerous studies in animals and humans have proven that high plasma levels of cholesterol (hypercholesterolemia) strongly enhance the mortality from coronary artery disease. It has also been shown that drug therapy for hypercholesterolemia is highly effective in reducing risk for cardiac, vascular, and cerebrovascular events.

Hypercholesterolemia may be controlled by diet or by treatment with niacin, fibrates, or 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) reductase inhibitors. HMG-CoA reductase catalyzes the rate-determining step of the biosynthesis of cholesterol (Scheme 73.1).

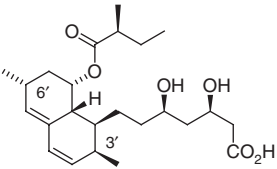
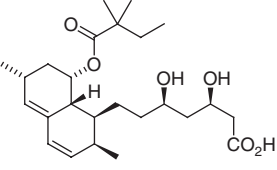
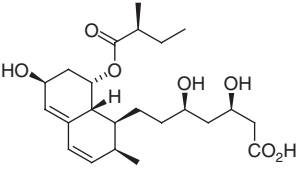
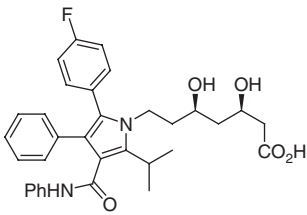
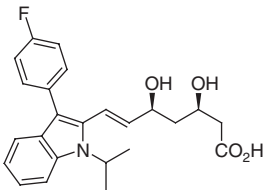


Scheme 73.1 Biosynthesis of cholesterol.

The first natural HMG-CoA reductase inhibitor (mevastatin or compactin) was isolated from a *Penicillium* mold in 1976. Two years later, a second inhibitor, closely related to mevastatin (lovastatin or mevinolin), was isolated from cultures of *Aspergillus*. Fortunately, it was soon discovered that the lipophilic, synthetically demanding decalin substructure of mevastatin and lovastatin allowed ample structural modifications without loss of inhibitory activity. This led to the development of numerous HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors devoid of decalin substructure, which have become bestselling drugs (Table 73.1).

If compared to the natural products, the newer HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors are metabolically more stable and show higher oral bioavailabilities and longer half-lives. Their synthesis is also much easier.

Table 73.1 Statins (HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors). V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-------------------------|--------------|----------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | $1.4 \pm 0.3 \text{ h}$ | V | 0.87 | LOVASTATIN |
| | F | <5% | CL | 11 ± 7 | Antilipemic, CYP3A4 substrate |
| | pb | 95% | Mwt | 404.5 | Metabolism: 3'- and |
| | ur | Negligible | PSA | 72.8 \AA^2 | 6'-hydroxylations, 3'-methyl |
| | | | $\log P$ | 4.31 | hydroxylation, oxidation of alcohol |
| | | | | | to ketone, glucuronides |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 1.9 h | V | 2.3 (dog) | SIMVASTATIN |
| | F | <5% | CL | 7.6 | Antilipemic, CYP3A4 substrate |
| | pb | 94% | Mwt | 418.6 | |
| | ur | <5% | PSA | 72.8 \AA^2 | |
| | | | $\log P$ | 4.72 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | $1.8 \pm 0.8 \text{ h}$ | V | 0.46 ± 0.04 | PRAVASTATIN |
| | F | $18 \pm 8\%$ | CL | 3.5 ± 2.4 | Antilipemic |
| | pb | 43–48% | Mwt | 424.5 | Metabolism: reversible lactone |
| | ur | $47 \pm 7\%$ | PSA | 124 \AA^2 | hydrolysis, hydroxylation at |
| | | | $\log P$ | 2.21 | MeCH_2 , 1,4-dihydroxylation of |
| | | | | | diene, epimerization, and hydroxy |
| | | | | | group 1,5-migration of pentadienol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | $15 \pm 7 \text{ h}$ | V | 5.9 | ATORVASTATIN |
| | F | 14% | CL | 31 | Antilipemic |
| | pb | >98% | Mwt | 558.6 | Metabolism: 2- and |
| | ur | <2% | PSA | 107 \AA^2 | 4-hydroxylations of aminophenyl |
| | | | $\log P$ | 4.13 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | $2.7 \pm 1.3 \text{ h}$ | V | 0.15–0.42 | FLUVASTATIN |
| | F | 9–50% | CL | 7.9–16.2 | Substrate and inhibitor of CYP2C9 |
| | pb | >99% | Mwt | 411.5 | Metabolism: 5- and |
| | ur | <1% | PSA | 82.7 \AA^2 | 6-hydroxylations of indole, |
| | | | $\log P$ | 4.57 | N-deisopropylation |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 11 h F 51–60% pb >99% ur <5% | V 2.3 CL – Mwt 421.5 PSA 90.7 Å ² log P 3.45 | PITAVASTATIN Antilipemic Metabolism: reversible lactonization |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–4 h F 39–100% pb >99% ur 0% | V 0.33 CL 2.9–3.1 Mwt 459.6 PSA 99.9 Å ² log P 3.71 | CERIVASTATIN Metabolism: O-demethylation, hydroxylation of CCH ₃ ; withdrawn in 2001 because of toxicity in combination with gemfibrozil |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 18–25 h F 20% pb 88% ur 10% | V 1.7 CL 10.5 Mwt 481.5 PSA 149 Å ² log P 0.42 | ROSUVASTATIN Antilipemic Metabolism: N-demethylation |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F , oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V , volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

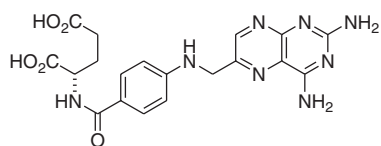
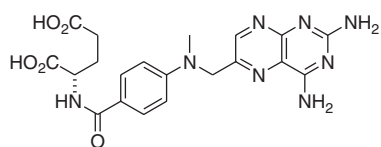
74

Folic Acid Analogs (Antifolates)

Folic acid (vitamin B₉) is involved in the biosynthesis of nucleosides. A dietary deficiency of folic acid causes anemia and a decline in the number of blood-generating bone marrow cells. While investigating the effect of folic acid analogs on the growth of cancer cells, Sidney Farber found that some analogs promoted cell growth while others effectively suppressed it. During 1947, aminopterin and methotrexate were shown to induce temporary remissions in 30% of children with leukemia. In 1963, Roy Hertz discovered that antifolates consistently cured choriocarcinoma, the first instance of a cure for a solid tumor. Methotrexate can also be used to treat psoriasis and as an immunosuppressant.

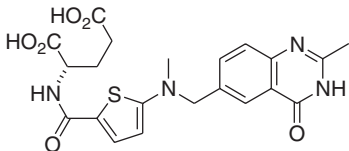
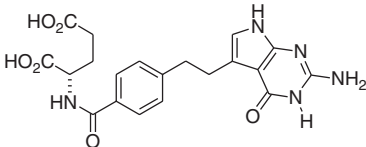
Antifolates (Table 74.1) are inhibitors of dihydrofolate reductase, and thereby block the biosynthesis of thymine and purine. The main metabolic pathways include conjugation with glutamic acid and heteroaromatic hydroxylation.

Table 74.1 Folic acid analogs. *V* in l kg⁻¹; CL in ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Mwt in g mol⁻¹.

| | | | | | |
|---|-------------------------|-----------|--------------|--------------------|--|
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 3.6±0.3 h | <i>V</i> | 0.6 | AMINOPTERIN Antineoplastic |
| | <i>F</i> | 84±8% | CL | – | |
| | pb | – | Mwt | 440.4 | |
| | ur | – | PSA | 219 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | –0.93 | |
|  | <i>t</i> _{1/2} | 7.2±2.1 h | <i>V</i> | 0.55±0.19 | METHOTREXATE Antineoplastic, antirheumatic Metabolite: 7-hydroxy |
| | <i>F</i> | 70±27% | CL | 2.1±0.8 | |
| | pb | 46±11% | Mwt | 454.4 | |
| | ur | 81±9% | PSA | 211 Å ² | |
| | | | log <i>P</i> | –0.45 | |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|--|---|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5.3±1.2 h F — pb — ur 40±15% | V 0.2 CL 0.5 Mwt 573.6 PSA 248 Å ² $\log P$ -0.46 | PT-523 Antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 7–12 h F — pb 30% (rat) ur 13–55% | V — CL 6.4±3.6 Mwt 467.5 PSA 207 Å ² $\log P$ 1.54 | EDATREXATE Antineoplastic Metabolite: 7-hydroxy |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 12–18 h* F — pb 67% ur 31–38%* | V 0.6–1.6 CL 2.9–6.4 Mwt 477.5 PSA 207 Å ² $\log P$ 0.23 | PRALATREXATE *iv Antineoplastic Metabolism: glutamylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 43±28 h F — pb 78% ur — | V — CL 0.8±0.2 Mwt 443.5 PSA 183 Å ² $\log P$ 1.23 | LOMETREXOL Antineoplastic Metabolism: conjugation with glutamic acid to higher glutamates |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 9.3±2.8 h F 40–100% pb 40±5% ur 10% | V 3.2±1.2 CL 3.9±0.8 Mwt 473.4 PSA 216 Å ² $\log P$ -1.43 | LEUCOVORIN, FOLINIC ACID Prodrug of tetrahydrofolic acid; mixture of stereoisomers |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 2–6 d F 80% (dog) pb 98% ur — | V 0.3–1.0 CL 0.05–0.31 Mwt 532.5 PSA 166 Å ² $\log P$ 1.48 | ZD 9331 Antineoplastic |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|-----|-----------------------------------|---|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 150–380 h | V | 8 | RALTITREXED, TOMUDEX *rat Antineoplastic Metabolism: polyglutamation |
| | F | 10–20%* | CL | 0.6–1.2 | |
| | pb | 95% | Mwt | 458.5 | |
| | ur | 20–50% | PSA | 177 Å ² log P 0.86 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3.5 h* | V | 0.3 | PEMETREXED *iv **mice Antineoplastic |
| | F | 13%** | CL | 1.4 | |
| | pb | 81% | Mwt | 427.4 | |
| | ur | 70–90%* | PSA | 187 Å ² log P –0.70 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

75

Taxanes

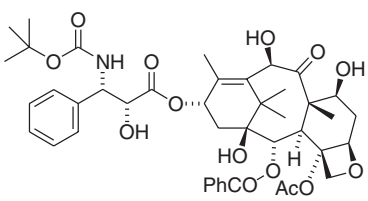
In the early 1960s, large collections of natural products were screened at the National Cancer Institute (NCI, US). In 1962, one extract showed remarkable activity against several types of tumor. The active principle, paclitaxel (Taxol), was isolated from the bark of the Western yew tree (*Taxus brevifolia*) and its structure determined in 1971 by single-crystal X-ray crystallography by Mansukh C. Wani and coworkers. Paclitaxel was approved for treatment of ovarian cancer in 1992.

In contrast to the vinca alkaloids, which inhibit microtubule formation, paclitaxel acts by promoting microtubule formation, thereby preventing mitosis. Because of its poor solubility, it has to be solubilized with a detergent, Cremophor EL. Still, this formulation is far from optimal, and further, more soluble taxanes or prodrugs thereof are being developed (Table 75.1) [1].

Reference

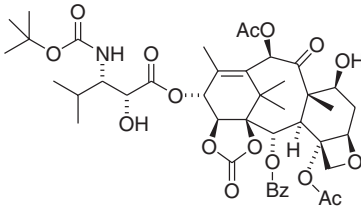
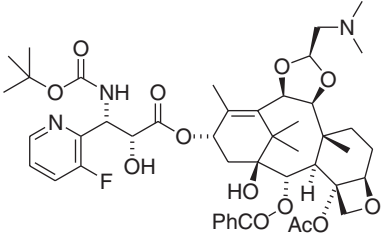
1. Skwarczynski, M., Hayashi, Y., and Kiso, Y. (2006) Paclitaxel prodrugs: toward smarter delivery of anticancer agents. *J. Med. Chem.*, **49**, 7253–7269.

Table 75.1 Taxanes. V in l kg^{-1} ; CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{kg}^{-1}$; Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|---------|--------------|--------------------|-------------------------------------|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 11–18 h | V | 1.7–3.7 | DOCETAXEL |
| | F | – | CL | 7.0–9.1 | Antineoplastic; Metabolism: |
| | pb | 93–94% | Mwt | 807.9 | hydroxylation of <i>tert</i> -butyl |
| | ur | <4% | PSA | 224 \AA^2 | and phenyl |
| | | | $\log P$ | 2.46 | |

| | | | |
|--|---|--|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 62 h F — pb 89–92% ur 2.3% (iv) | V 71 CL 12 Mwt 835.9 PSA 202 Å ² log P 3.30 | CABAZITAXEL Antineoplastic; Metabolism: O-demethylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 20–24 h F — pb — ur 1% | V 25 CL 19 Mwt 831.9 PSA 210 Å ² log P 5.66 | RPR-109881A Antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3±1 h F Negligible pb 95–98% ur 5±2% | V 2.0±1.2 CL 5.5±3.5 Mwt 853.9 PSA 221 Å ² log P 3.95 | PACLITAXEL, TAXOL Antineoplastic; Metabolism: hydroxylation of phenyl group and methylene group of cyclohexane |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 34±6 h F — pb — ur — | V 10±2 CL 5.1±0.7 Mwt 914.0 PSA 236 Å ² log P 5.00 | BMS-184476 Antineoplastic; Metabolism: oxidation to sulfoxide |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 22 h F 24% pb — ur <3.5%* | V — CL — Mwt 845.9 PSA 240 Å ² log P 3.49 | BMS-275183 *animals Antineoplastic; Metabolism: ester hydrolysis, hydroxylation of <i>tert</i> -butyl |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|----------|-------|--------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 70 h | V | — | ORTATAXEL, BAY 59-8862 Antineoplastic |
| | F | 19–31% | CL | — | |
| | pb | — | Mwt | 871.9 | |
| | ur | — | PSA | 246 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 7.56 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 167±77 h | V/F | 72±47 | DJ-927 |
| | F | 63%* | CL | 6±3 | *monkey |
| | pb | 92–98% | Mwt | 882.0 | Antineoplastic |
| | ur | — | PSA | 202 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 5.73 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

76

Macrocyclic Compounds

A number of bioactive, macrocyclic natural products are being used as drugs or as lead structures. Despite being highly flexible, and thus having an entropic disadvantage when compared to smaller, less flexible molecules, some of these compounds bind to proteins with high affinity and selectivity [1]. Because of the entropic disadvantage of large, flexible compounds, it is unlikely that selective ligands will be found by screening large, oligomeric molecules, prepared randomly. For this reason, most of the compounds listed below originated from natural products. Cyclic peptides are listed in Table 55.1.

Rapamycin and tacrolimus were isolated in 1965 and 1975, respectively, from soil bacteria of Easter Island. These compounds bind selectively to a protein involved in the immune response (FK-binding protein 12) and are potent immunosuppressants, used to prevent transplant rejection.

The antibiotic erythromycin was also isolated from soil bacteria (1952, J. M. McGuire). Macrolide antibiotics such as erythromycin are bacteriostatic. These lactones bind reversibly to the bacterial 50S ribosomal subunit and thereby inhibit protein biosynthesis. A number of analogs with improved pharmacokinetic (PK) properties have been developed (Table 76.1). Macrolides are important leads for new antibiotics, as antibiotic-resistant bacterial strains continue to emerge (see Ref. [1] in Chapter 70).

Reference

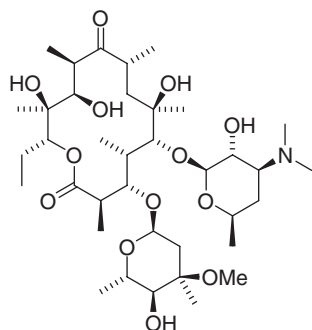
1. Marsault, E. and Peterson, M.L. (2011) Macrocycles are great cycles: applications, opportunities, and challenges of synthetic macrocycles in drug discovery. *J. Med. Chem.*, **54**, 1961–2004.

Table 76.1 Macrocyclic compounds. V in l kg^{-1} , CL in $\text{ml min}^{-1} \text{kg}^{-1}$, Mwt in g mol^{-1} .

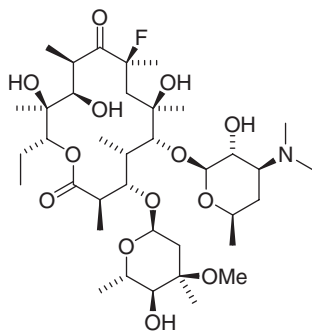
| | | | |
|--|---|--|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 18 h (iv) F 22%* pb 86% ur – | V 2.7 CL 7.7 Mwt 1030.3 PSA 242 \AA^2 $\log P$ 3.00 | TEMSIROLIMUS *monkey Antineoplastic Metabolism: exocyclic ester hydrolysis to sirolimus |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 40–86 h F 15% pb 92–98% ur <2% | V 23±10 CL 4.6±2.0 Mwt 914.2 PSA 195 \AA^2 $\log P$ 4.26 | RAPAMYCIN, SIROLIMUS Immunosuppressant Metabolism: O-demethylation, tetrahydropyran 4-hydroxylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 35 h (iv) F – pb 99% ur 0.1% | V 1.3 CL 0.7 Mwt 966.2 PSA 219 \AA^2 $\log P$ 3.59 | ZOTAROLIMUS Immunosuppressant |

| | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 15±7 h F 16±7% pb 75–99% ur <1% | V 0.88±0.31 CL 0.70±0.27 Mwt 804.0 PSA 178 Å ² log P 4.79 | TACROLIMUS, FK506 Immunosuppressant CYP3A4 substrate Metabolism: O-demethylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 35–92 h F – pb 74–87% ur 0% | V/F 40–138 CL/F 13–21 Mwt 810.5 PSA 158 Å ² log P 5.76 | PIMECROLIMUS Immunomodulator for topical application Metabolism: O-demethylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 30–43 h F 16%* pb 74% ur Negligible | V 4.7 CL 1.5–2.7 Mwt 958.2 PSA 205 Å ² log P 3.39 | EVEROLIMUS *rat Antineoplastic Metabolism: hydroxylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3.3±0.5 h F 55±8% pb 46±4% ur 36±7% | V 2.6±0.5 CL 7.3±1.9 Mwt 748.0 PSA 183 Å ² log P 3.16 | CLARITHROMYCIN Antibacterial |

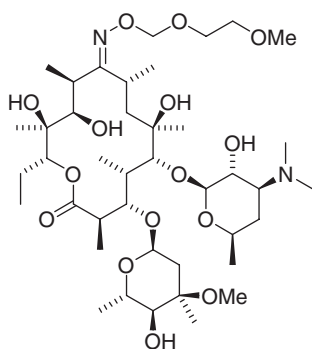
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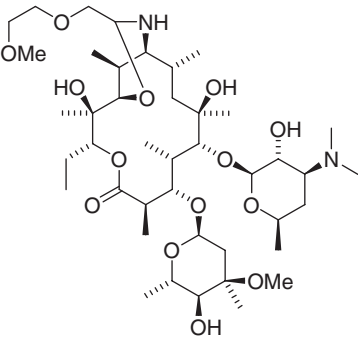
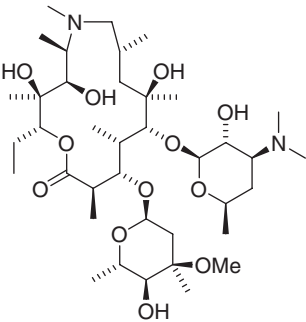
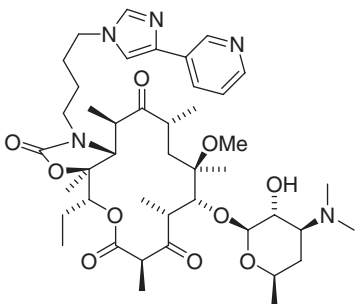
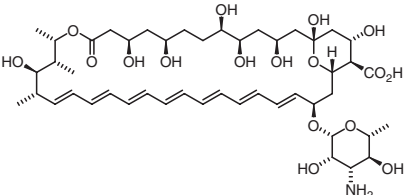
| | | | | |
|-----------|-----------|-------|--------------------|-----------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 1.6±0.7 h | V | 0.78±0.44 | ERYTHROMYCIN |
| F | 35±25% | CL | 9.1±4.1 | Antibacterial |
| pb | 84±3% | Mwt | 733.9 | CYP3A substrate |
| ur | 12±7% | PSA | 194 Å ² | |
| | | log P | 1.91 | |



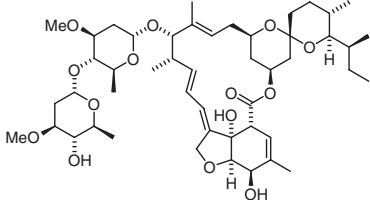
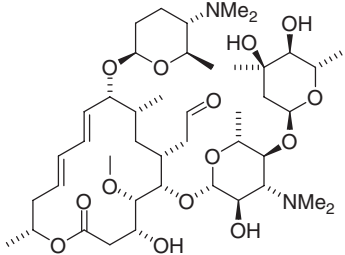
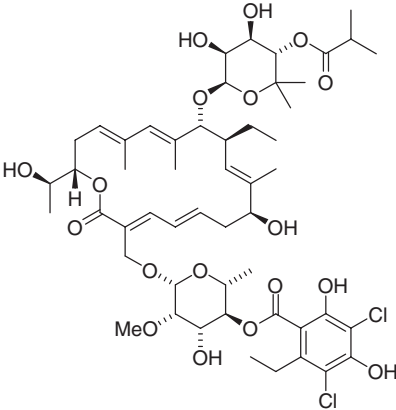
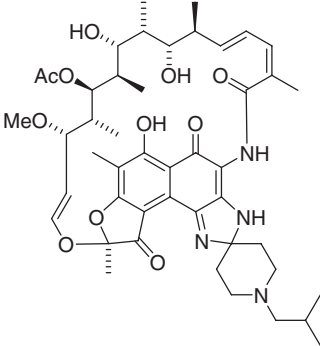
| | | | | |
|-----------|--------|-------|--------------------|----------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 8–10 h | V/F | 5.5 | FLURITHROMYCIN |
| F | Good | CL/F | 8 | Antibacterial |
| pb | – | Mwt | 751.9 | |
| ur | – | PSA | 194 Å ² | |
| | | log P | 1.89 | |



| | | | | |
|-----------|------|-------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| $t_{1/2}$ | 12 h | V | 0.44 | ROXITHROMYCIN |
| F | 60% | CL | – | Metabolism: |
| pb | 96% | Mwt | 837.1 | deglycosylation, N- and |
| ur | <10% | PSA | 217 Å ² | O-demethylation, |
| | | log P | 2.84 | formaldehyde acetal |
| | | | | hydrolysis |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 16–55 h* F 10%* pb 15–30%* ur 2% | V 8–16* CL – Mwt 835.1 PSA 196 Å ² $\log P$ 3.38 | DIRITHROMYCIN Prodrug of erythromycylamine (hydrolysis of hemiaminal) *erythromycylamine on oral administration of dirithromycin |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 40 h F 37% pb 7–50% ur 12% | V 31 CL 9 Mwt 749.0 PSA 180 Å ² $\log P$ 3.33 | AZITHROMYCIN Antibacterial Metabolism: N- and O-demethylation, hydroxylation, hydrolysis of glycosidic bonds |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 10–14 h F 57% pb 60–70% ur 20–23% (iv) | V 2.0–3.2 CL – Mwt 812.0 PSA 172 Å ² $\log P$ 5.22 | TELITHROMYCIN Antibacterial Metabolism: N-dealkylation of imidazole to primary alcohol |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 18±7 h F – pb >90% ur 2–5% | V 0.76±0.52 CL 0.46±0.20 Mwt 924.1 PSA 327 Å ² $\log P$ 0.06 | AMPHOTERICIN B Antifungal |

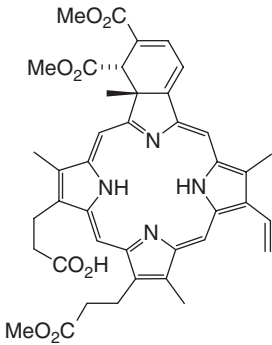
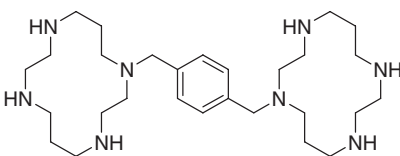
(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|---|---|--|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 27 h F – pb 93% ur 0% | V 0.5 CL 0.3 Mwt 875.1 PSA 170 Å ² $\log P$ 5.97 | IVERMECTIN Antiparasitic (nematodes, arthropods) Metabolism: hydroxylation, O-demethylation |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 4–8 h F 30–40% pb 18% ur 14% | V 6 CL 8–22 Mwt 843.1 PSA 195.4 Å ² $\log P$ 2.30 | SPIRAMYCIN Antibacterial Metabolism: deglycosylation of disaccharide |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 h F Low pb – ur 0% | V – CL – Mwt 1058.0 PSA 267 Å ² $\log P$ 11.0 | FIDAXOMICIN Antibacterial, RNA polymerase inhibitor |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ 47±12 h F 20±7% pb 85±2% ur 7±3% | V/F 40±15 CL/F 12±3 Mwt 847.0 PSA 206 Å ² $\log P$ 4.49 | RIFABUTIN Antibacterial Metabolism: O-deacetylation |

| | | | |
|--|---|--|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 3.5±0.8 h F 90–100% pb 89±1% ur 7±3% | V 0.97±0.36 CL 3.5±1.6 Mwt 822.9 PSA 220 Å ² log P 2.05 | RIFAMPIN Antibacterial Metabolism: O-deacetylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 6 h F <0.4% pb 68% ur <0.1% | V – CL – Mwt 785.9 PSA 198 Å ² log P 3.35 | RIFAXIMIN Antibacterial Metabolism: deacetylation |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 0.7 h (iv) F – pb 18% ur 0% | V 0.39 CL 16 Mwt 690.9 PSA 185 Å ² log P –0.94 | DALFOPRISTIN Antibacterial |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 1–3 h (iv) F – pb 66% ur – | V 0.7 CL 16 Mwt 1022.2 PSA 231.2 Å ² log P 1.97 | QUINUPRISTIN Antibacterial |

(continued overleaf)

| | | | |
|--|--|--|---|
| | $t_{1/2}$ 5.2±1.9 h F Low pb – ur 57±19% | V 0.4±0.1 CL 0.61 Mwt 668.7 PSA 378.4 Å ² log P –8.65 | CAPREOMYCIN 1A Antibacterial |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 4–19 min* F – pb – ur – | V 0.7–4.2 CL 35–434 Mwt 625.8 PSA 133 Å ² log P 4.30 | RHIZOXIN *iv Antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 17–52 h (iv) F – pb 67–77% ur 6% (iv) | V 11 CL 10 Mwt 506.7 PSA 140 Å ² log P 1.77 | IXABEPILONE Analog of epothilone B (replacement of lactone by lactam), microtubule-stabilizing agent, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 53–83 h* F – pb – ur – | V 36–58 CL 10–19 Mwt 543.7 PSA 134 Å ² log P 3.19 | SAGOPILONE *β; α: 3 min Microtubule-stabilizing agent, antineoplastic |
| | $t_{1/2}$ 45–65 h* F – pb 85–88% ur Negligible | V 0.5 CL 0.07 Mwt 680.8 PSA 138 Å ² log P 9.60 | TEMOPORFIN *iv Photosensitizer, no metabolism |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------|------------|-------|----------------------|--|
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 5–6 h (iv) | V | 0.6 | VERTEPORFIN Photosensitizer |
| | F | – | CL | 1.7–2.0 | |
| | pb | 91% | Mwt | 794.8 | |
| | ur | <0.01% | PSA | 184.6 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | 7.38 | |
|  | $t_{1/2}$ | 3–5 h | V | 0.3 | PLERIXAFOR α-Chemokine antagonist, immunostimulant; no metabolism |
| | F | 3% | CL | 1.3 | |
| | pb | 58% | Mwt | 502.8 | |
| | ur | 70% | PSA | 78.7 Å ² | |
| | | | log P | –0.82 | |

$t_{1/2}$, plasma half-life; F, oral bioavailability; pb, plasma protein binding; ur, excretion of unchanged drug in urine; V, volume of distribution; CL, clearance; Mwt, molecular weight; PSA, polar surface area.

Index

Bold page numbers = tabulated PK data

a

- 852 A **418**
- abacavir **438**
- abanoquil **425**
- abecarnil **299**
- abiraterone **483**
- abortifacients 490, 539, 541
- Abraham, Edward P. 522
- absorbtion of drugs 14
- ABT-263 **365**
- ABT-279 **345**
- ABT-761 **194**
- ABT-869 **371**
- acadesine **428**
- acamprosate 203, **204**
- acarbose **81**
- ACE inhibitors 99, 162, 335–340, 352
- acebutolol **324**
- acecainide **216**
- aceclofenac **506**
- acefylline **441**
- acemetacin **503**
- acenocoumarol 60, **143**
- acepromazine **305**
- acesulfame 208, **434**
- acetals 138
- acetamidoeugenol 42
- acetamidofluorene 133
- acetaminophen (paracetamol) **84**, 92
 - metabolism 82
- acetazolamide 451, **457**
- acetohexamide 37, 139, **458**
- acetophenone 59
- 4-(acetylamino)antipyrine 181
- acetylcholine 118, 393
- acetylcholinesterase 118
- acetylcholinesterase inhibitors 245, 334, 399, 420
- acetylcholinesterase reactivators 398, 399
- acetyl-CoA 15, 145
- N-acetylcysteine 99, **162**, **339**
- acetylenes 40
- N-acetylhomocysteine 162
- L-acetylmethadol 165, **237**
- N-acetylprocainamide **216**
- acetylsalicylic acid 164, 349, 497, **512**
- acifran **510**
- acipimox 70, **398**
- acitretin **153**
- acivicin **160**
- acne 152, 153, 481
- ACNU (nimustine) **69**
- ACP-103 **257**
- acridines 413, 416, 420
- acrivastine 145, **231**
- acrolein 55, 205
- acromegaly (excessive growth) 360
- actisomide **238**
- active transport of drugs 15, 16
- active tubular secretion 15
- acute coronary syndrom 366
- acyclovir **437**
- N-acyl amino acids 147
- N-acylcyanamides 146
- acylguanidines 122, 123
- acylhydrazines 137
- N-acylsulfonamides 146
- N-acylureas 193
- adamantyl group 37
- adapalene **152**
- adefovir dipivoxil 210, **443**
- adenosine **436**

- adenosine A₁ agonists 438
- adenosine A₁ antagonists 442
- adenosine A_{2A} agonists 437
- adenosine A_{2A} antagonists 245, 442
- adenosine deaminase inhibitors 444
- S-adenosyl-L-methionine 15, 436
- adimolol 48, 327
- adinazolam 471
- adjunct antineoplastics 254, 367
- adrafinil 146, 157
- adrenaline 3, 267
- adrenaline receptors 225
- adrenergic agonists 273, 281–283
- α₂-adrenergic agonists 126, 130, 275
- β₃-adrenergic agonists 24, 281
- α₁-adrenergic antagonists 278, 279, 416, 425, 426
- α₂-adrenergic antagonists 125, 299, 380
- α-adrenoceptor antagonists 246
- β-adrenoceptor antagonists 195, 320–328
- adrenocortical steroids 477–481
- adverse drug reactions 17–20
- afatinib 373
- aflatoxines 41
- afloqualone 50, 136, 419
- AFN-1252 171
- AG-1343 351
- AG-14699 300
- AG-337 418
- agomelatine 48, 275
- agranulocytosis 18, 19, 173
- ajmaline 298
- alacepril 167, 339
- alafosfalin 209, 211
- alanine, as solubility enhancer 166, 167
- alatrofloxacin 167, 516
- albaconazole 389
- albendazole 385
- albendazole sulfoxide 61, 188, 385
- albumin 6
- albuterol 284
- alclofenac 499
- alcohol dehydrogenase inhibitors 379
- alcohols 71–81
 - acidity 40
 - prodrugs 164, 186, 213, 214
- alcoholism 194, 204
- alcuronium 300
- aldehyde dehydrogenase inhibitors 194
- aldehydes 138
- aldose reductase inhibitors 153, 163, 178, 201, 502
- aldosterone antagonists 487
- alendronic acid 211
- alfacalcidol 489
- alfentanil 243
- alfuzosin 425
- alinidine 126
- aliphatic amines 107–117
- aliskiren 168, 349, 357
- alizapride 218
- alizarin 89, 495
- alkanes 35
- alkenes 40–44
- alkyl bromides 53
- alkyl chlorides 51, 52
- alkyl fluorides 49–51
- alkyl groups 35
- alkyl sulfonates 54, 206
- alkylating agents 49–56, 206, 300
- alkynes 40
- allergic rhinitis (hay fever) 225–227, 252–258; see also antipruritics, histamine H₁ antagonists
- allopurinol 439
- allylamine, pK_a 110
- allylbenzenes 42
- alminoprofen 499
- almitrine 41, 253
- almokalant 326
- almorexant 288
- almotriptan 293
- alogliptin 342, 435
- alosetron 381
- alovudine 432
- alphaxalone 483
- alpidem 52, 410
- alprazolam 470
- alprenolol 320, 322
- alprostadil 539
- altretamine 398
- alvimopan 168, 239, 330
- Alzheimer's disease 245, 297, 353, 355, 417
- α-amanitin 347
- amantadine 37, 115
- ambrisentan 151
- ambroxol 117, 136
- amdinocillin 526
- amebicides, see antiprotozoals
- ameltolide 344
- amezinium 407
- AMG 706 366
- amides 166
 - as prodrugs 114, 167
- amfenac 500
- amfepramone 270
- amfonelic acid 516
- amidines 120

- amidopyrine 181
- amifampridine 398
- amiflamine 273
- amifostine 214
- amikacin 79
- amiloride 123, 130, 408
- amineptine 313
- amines 107, 133, 225
 - basicity 40, 110
 - metabolism 110–114
 - prodrugs 112–114, 167, 187
 - rates of N-dealkylation 111–114
- aminoacetonitrile, pK_a 110
- amino acid conjugation 15
- amino acids 147, 157–163
- N-(aminoalkyl)benzamides and -benzoates 215–224
- aminoalkylindoles 291–300
- 4-aminoantipyrine 181
- aminobenzenesulfonamides 21, 450
- 2-aminobenzoic acid 498
- 4-aminobiphenyl 133
- 4-aminobutyric acid, see GABA
- 9-aminocamptothecin 423
- amino carboxylic acids 147, 157–163
- 6-aminocaproic acid 157
- aminoglutethimide 136, 196
- aminoguanidine 128
- aminoglycoside antibacterials 78–81
- 6-aminohexanoic acid 157
- aminoisobutyric acid 347
- 6-aminopenicillamic acid 522, 523
- aminopeptidase inhibitors 156
- aminopeptidases 166
- aminophenols 82
- aminopterin 551
- 4-aminopyridine 395, 398
- aminopyrine 173
- 5-aminosalicylic acid 511, 512
- amidarone 17, 54, 261
- amisulpride 106, 218
- amitriptyline 101, 312
- amlexanox 495, 507
- amlodipine 108, 165, 449
- ammonium chloride (for urine acidification) 269
- ammonium salts 107, 118
- amobarbital 198
- amocarbazine 194, 201, 371
- amodiaquine 414, 420
- amorolfine 273
- amosulalol 285
- amoxapine 318
- amoxicillin 526
- AMPA antagonists 404
- amperozide 240
- amphetamine 270
- amphetamines 267
- N-Lys-amphetamine 270
- amphotericin B 561
- ampicillin 204, 526
- amproxicam 186
- amprenavir 214, 351
- amrinone 406
- amsacrine 416
- amylocaine 215
- anabolics 434
- anacetrapib 177
- anaerobic organisms 378
- anagrelide 131
- analeptics, see CNS stimulants
- analgesics
 - narcotic 149, 227, 228, 237, 239, 243, 251, 274, 278, 329–334
 - non-narcotic 84, 85, 126, 153, 181, 211, 235, 236, 270, 276, 305, 316, 330, 403, 405, 455, 456
- anastrozole 184, 390
- andarine 170
- androgen receptor modulators 170, 179
- androgens 477, 485, 486
- anesthetics
 - inhalation 53
 - iv 84, 116, 198, 199, 243, 281, 471
 - local 77, 84, 215, 216, 224, 236, 341–344, 483
- angina pectoris 66, 320
- angioedema 359
- angiotensin 335
- angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE) 335; see also ACE inhibitors
- angiotensin II antagonists (sartans) 335, 543–547
- angiotensinogen 335
- anidulafungin 359
- anilides of glycine 341–346
- aniline 133
- anilines 133–136
- aniracetam 172, 174
- anorexics (appetite suppressants) 125, 251, 268, 270–273, 280
- anseculin 247
- antabuse (disulfiram) 194, 202
- anthelmintics (vermicides)
 - cestodes 86, 264
 - nematodes 97, 124, 127, 194, 250, 385, 386, 562
 - schistosoma 74, 158, 183, 287, 288, 496

- anthelmintics (vermicides) (*contd.*)
 - trematodes 57
- anthracene 47
- anthracyclines 492–495
- anthranilic acid 498
- anthraquinones 495, 496
- antiacetylcholinesterase agents 118
- antiacne agents 152, 153, 481
- antiadrenal agents 56
- antiadrenergics 117
- antiallergics 247, 440, 478, 481, 495, 507, 510, 515
- antialopeia agents (hair-growth stimulants) 407
- antiamyloidogenic agents 204
- antiandrogens 170, 179, 481
- antianginals
 - β -blockers 321–328
 - calcium antagonists 227, 229, 474
 - carnitine palmitoyltransferase inhibitors 230
 - nitrous oxide precursors 66, 76, 401
 - phenethylamines 276, 277, 286
 - piperazines 252
- antiangiogenics (vascular growth suppressants) 366, 371, 372
- antianxiety agents, *see* anxiolytics
- antiarrhythmics
 - adenosine A₁ antagonists 438
 - alkylamines 182, 233, 236, 238, 241, 257, 259, 261, 263, 285, 298, 307, 313, 345, 422, 435
 - amidines 125
 - ammonium salts 117, 222
 - β -blockers 321–328
 - calcium channel blockers 277, 474
 - guanidines 128
 - phenethylamines 276, 277, 279, 286
 - potassium channel blockers 117, 263, 463
 - sodium channel blockers 216, 217, 220, 224
- antiarteriosclerotics 399
- antiarthritics 79, 89
- antiasthmatics
 - β_2 -adrenergic agonists 283, 286
- leukotriene D₄ antagonists 422, 440, 509, 511
- lipoxigenase inhibitors 194, 495
- mast cell degranulation blockers 510
- methylxanthines 440, 441
- other 224
- PDE₄ inhibitors 151
- steroids 478, 480
- thromboxane A₂ antagonists 150
- antibacterials
 - aminoglycosides 79–81, 129
 - amphenicols 78
 - ansamycins 562, 563
 - antifolates 404, 405, 450
 - carbamates 176
 - diaminopyrimidines 404, 405
 - dyes 62, 512
 - β -lactams 522–537
 - lincosamides 78
 - macrolides 557, 559–563
 - nitrofurans 183
 - other 116, 160, 161, 210, 211, 317, 356, 384, 399, 417
 - peptides 361
 - quinolonecarboxylic acids 514–521
 - sulfonamides 21, 450, 458, 459
 - sulfones 87
 - tetracyclines 492–495
- antibacterial adjunct 162
- antibiotic resistance 523
- anticholinergics 118, 150, 221–223, 230, 233, 238, 303, 304
- anticholinesterase agents 118
- anticoagulants 127, 142, 143, 177
- anticonvulsants, *see* antiepileptics
- antidepressants
 - bicyclics 159, 228, 231, 270, 275, 276, 280
 - hydrazines 400
 - other 176, 216, 217, 236, 237, 271, 273, 281
 - pyrrolidones 175
 - tetracyclics 125, 245, 247, 249, 266, 293, 317, 318, 471
 - tricyclics 230, 234–236, 247, 251, 259, 306, 310–314, 317, 406
- antidiabetics
 - biguanides 131
 - carboxylic acids 150–152, 163, 510
 - DPPIV inhibitors 8, 23, 273, 288, 342, 345, 346, 355, 435, 443
 - other 77, 78, 128, 129, 458
 - sulfonylureas 462–464
 - thiazolidinediones 178, 179
- antidiarrheals 237, 239, 241
- antidiuretics 360
- antidotes
 - for cholinesterase inhibitors 398, 399
 - for curare 85, 190
 - for ethylene glycol 379
 - for heavy metals 158, 159, 162
 - for methanol 379
- antidyskinetics (tremor suppressants) 217, 287, 401

- antiemetics (nausea suppressants)
 - dopamine antagonists 217–219, 244, 260, 304, 307, 308
 - histamine H₁ antagonists 252–254, 303
 - 5-HT₃ antagonists 219, 223, 381
 - NK₁ antagonists 265, 266
 - THC analogs 86
- antiepileptics
 - acylureas 195
 - alcohols 74
 - amides 148, 162, 175, 354
 - barbiturates 197
 - benzodiazepines 466–476
 - carbamates 177, 189, 190, 404
 - carboxylic acids 148
 - dibenzazepines 316
 - GABA analogs 160, 161
 - GABA reuptake inhibitors 240
 - imides 177, 178, 196
 - sodium channel blockers 405
 - steroids 483
 - sulfamates 95
 - sulfonamides 457, 458
- antiestrogens 263
- antifibrotics 406
- antifolates 404, 405, 408, 409, 450, 551–553
- antifreeze agents 76
- antifungals
 - alcohols 76, 86 (phenol)
 - amines 116, 273
 - amino acids 160
 - guanidine 127
 - *N*-hydroxypyridones 406
 - imidazoles 387, 388, 391
 - peptides 359
 - polyenes 561
 - triazoles 387–392
- antiglaucoma agents 122, 126, 246, 321–328, 380, 385, 457, 540, 541
- antigonadotropins 485
- antigout agents 476, 510
- antihemorrhagics (hemostatics) 148, 157, 160, 182, 205
- antihistaminics, see histamine antagonists
- antihyperlipemics, see antilipemics
- antihypertensives
 - ACE inhibitors 99, 162, 335–340, 352
 - α_1 -adrenergic antagonists 125, 244, 248
 - α_2 -adrenergic agonists 126
 - angiotensin II antagonists 543–547
 - arylethanolamines 285, 286
 - aryloxyacetic acids 151, 155
 - aryloxypropanolamines 248, 276, 320–328
 - benzothiadiazines 452, 453
 - calcium channel blockers 277, 279, 446–449, 473, 474
 - dihydropyridines 446–449
 - dopamine agonists 272
 - guanidines 126–128, 130, 400
 - hydrazines 404, 419
 - indole alkaloids 298, 299
 - other 159, 403, 407, 418, 488
 - potassium channel openers 174, 407
 - prostaglandin analogs 540
 - quinazolines 425, 426
 - renin inhibitors 357
 - sulfonamides 452–454
- antihyperthyroids 182, 201, 434
- antihypoglycemics 452
- antihypotensives 273, 282, 285, 407
- antiinflammatories, non-steroidal, see NSAIDs
- antiinflammatories, steroidal 477–481
- antileptotics 87
- antileukemics, see antineoplastics
- anti-Lewisite (dimercaprol, BAL, 2,3-dimercaptopropanol) 98
- antilipemics 86, 154, 155, 161, 205, 398, 510, 549, 550
- antimalarials, see antiprotozoals
- antimetabolites 428
- antimigraine agents 95, 148, 159, 248, 253, 258, 291–296, 354
- antimitotic agents, see antineoplastics
- antimony-containing drugs 158
- antimuscarinics 118, 232
- antimycotic, see antifungals
- antineoplastics
 - alkylating agents 49–56, 141, 206, 300, 398
 - anthracyclines 492, 493
 - antifolates 408, 409, 551–553
 - antimitotics 291, 297, 298, 375, 554–556
 - apoptosis inducers 89, 194, 355, 365, 367
 - epipodophyllotoxins 89, 90
 - epothilone analogs 564
 - farnesyltransferase inhibitors 476
 - histone deacylase inhibitors 156, 360, 366, 367
 - hormonal 170, 179, 196, 263, 357, 358, 483, 486, 487
 - kinase inhibitors 22, 217, 258, 366, 368, 369, 371–375, 412
 - matrix metalloproteinase inhibitors 352, 353, 371, 505
 - *N*-nitrosoureas 68, 69
 - nucleoside analogs 418, 428–439, 444

- antineoplastics (*contd.*)
 - other 117, 157, 160, 194, 252, 255, 262, 288, 300, 354, 356, 357, 366, 370, 372, 374, 375, 381, 386, 390, 402, 461, 505, 509, 558
 - platinum complexes 158
 - radiosensitizers 383, 564, 565
 - topoisomerase inhibitors 299, 416, 423, 424, 496, 516
 - triazenes 64, 65, 382, 507
- antiobesity agents 152, 171
- antiosteoporotics 88, 210, 260–263, 353
- antiparkinsonians
 - adenosine A_{2A} antagonists 442
 - alkylamines 115
 - COMT inhibitors 83, 85, 86
 - diarylalkylamines 233, 257, 303
 - dopamine agonists 274, 275, 294–296
 - dopamine precursors 83, 159
 - dopamine reuptake inhibitors 251
 - MAO inhibitors 271
- antiplatelet agents 162, 465; see also platelet
- antiprotozoals
 - ameba 85, 382, 383, 417
 - giardia 183, 382
 - leishmania 127
 - malaria 62, 94, 95, 97, 131, 211, 233, 413, 414, 417, 420–422
 - pneumocystis 127, 141, 157
 - toxoplasma 141, 405
 - trichomonas 382, 383
 - trypanosoma 127, 157, 384
- antipruritics 77, 158, 254, 255, 304, 305; see also hay fever, histamine H₁ antagonists
- antipsoriasis agents 153, 489, 509
- antipsychotics
 - benzamides 217, 218
 - butyrophenones 241, 242
 - other 240, 241, 244–247, 249, 250, 274, 287, 309, 311, 318, 319
 - phenothiazines 301, 304–308
- antipyretics, see antiinflammatories
- antipyrine 181
- antirheumatics, see rheumatoid arthritis
- antirickettsials 78
- antiseizure agents, see antiepileptics
- antiseptics 82, 87, 132
- antiseptic surgery 82
- antisickling agents 151, 509
- antispasmodics 88, 117, 219–222, 227, 230, 232, 257, 261, 287
- antithrombocythemics 131
- antithrombotics
 - antiplatelet agents 162, 465
 - factor Xa inhibitors 170, 176, 177, 266, 363, 367, 370
 - NSAIDs 500; see also NSAIDs, salicylates
 - other 180, 247
 - platelet aggregation inhibitors 265, 366, 439, 539, 540
 - platelet glycoprotein IIb/IIIa blockers 265, 361, 362
 - thrombin inhibitors 363, 364
 - thromboxane antagonists 149, 150, 156, 542
 - thromboxane synthase inhibitors 149, 380, 510
 - vitamin K antagonists 142, 143
- antithyroids 261
- antitumor agents, see antineoplastics
- antiulceratives
 - histamine H₂ antagonists 101, 132, 264, 377, 380–382, 402
 - muscarinic M₁ antagonists 313
 - other 163, 407
 - prostaglandin analogs 541
 - proton pump inhibitors 104, 370, 396, 409, 410
- antiurolithics 439; see also uricosurics, hyperuricemia
- antiussives (cough suppressants) 221, 248, 260, 261, 281, 288, 329–334, 345
- antivertigo agents 401; see also motion sickness
- antivirals
 - CCR5 antagonists 253, 382
 - hepatitis 351, 436
 - HIV 200, 240, 253, 317, 350–352, 354, 369, 382, 405, 516
 - neuraminidase inhibitors 122, 129, 160
 - nucleoside analogs 209–211, 428–438, 443, 444
 - other 115, 127, 143, 190, 385, 418, 425
 - reverse transcriptase inhibitors 294, 317
- anxiolytics (fear suppressants)
 - arylpiperazines 249, 318
 - benzodiazepines 466–476
 - carbamates 189, 190
 - other 125, 199, 234, 256, 266, 299, 306, 370, 391, 410, 426
- apalcillin 526
- apazone 4
- apixaban 177
- aplastic anemia 18
- apomorphine 287, 334
- apoptosis inducers 89, 194, 355, 365, 367
- appetite stimulants 86, 482
- appetite suppressants, see anorexics

- apraclonidine 126
 Aprepitant 214, 265
 apricitabine 431
 aprindine 236
 aprobarbital 198
 aqueous pores 14, 119
 arabinofuranosylguanine 438
 arabinosyl-5-azacytidine 430
 arachidonic acid 538
 arecoline 264
 arene oxides 45
 arenes 45
 arenesulfonamides 21, 450–460
 argatroban 363
 L-arginine 129
 aripiprazole 247
 armodafinil 157
 aromatase inhibitors 390
 aromatic hydrocarbons 45
 aromatic hydroxylation 45
 aromatic thiols 99
 artelinic acid 94
 artemether 94
 artemisinin 95
 artemotil 97
 arteminol 97
 artesunate 94
 arthritis, see antiarthritics, rheumatoid arthritis
 artocaine 164, 344
 artocainic acid 344
 artificial sweeteners 77, 79, 115, 205, 434
 arundic acid 148
 arylacetic acids 497–506
 arylalkylamines 225–266; see also phenethylamines
 2-(arylamino)benzoic acids 498
 aryl bromides 53
 aryl chlorides 52
 aryl fluorides 50
 N-arylhydroxylamines 60, 135
 3-aryloxy-2-hydroxypropylamines 320–328
 arylpropionic acids 303, 497–503
 arxoxifene 260
 ASA404 505
 ascaridole 97
 ascorbic acid (vitamin C) 77
 asenapine 318
 asimadoline 278
 asoprisnil 489
 aspirin 164, 349, 497, 512
 astemizole 226, 258
 Astra 341, 396
 astrocyte modulating agents 148
 asulacrine 416
 ataluren 508
 atazanavir 349, 354
 atenolol 3, 320, 326
 atherosclerosis 399
 atipamezole 380
 atomoxetine 228
 atorvastatin 46, 549
 atovaquone 141
 atracurium 290
 atrasentan 505
 atrial fibrillation 81, 330
 atropine (hyoscyamine) 223
 attention deficite hyperactivity disorder 228, 229
 atypical antipsychotics 240, 318, 319
 auranofin 79
 aurothiomalate 158
 autan 169
 avibactam 182
 avitriptan 248, 294
 axitinib 372
 azacytidine 430
 azanidazole 384
 azapropazone 180, 418
 azasetron 219
 azatadine 254, 315, 393
 azathioprine 439
 AZD 6140 439
 AZD 6244 372
 azelastine 258
 azetidine, pK_a 110
 azides 58, 133
 azidocillin 58, 526
 azilsartan 546
 azimilide 108, 182
 aziridine, pK_a 110
 aziridines 54
 azithromycin 108, 561
 azlocillin 527
 azo compounds 62
 azoles, see imidazoles, triazoles
 azomycin 378
 azosemide 454, 507
 aztreonam 208, 534
- b**
- baclofen 160, 272
 bacterial fatty acid biosynthesis inhibitors 171
 bacterial infections, see antibacterials
 bafetinib 368
 BAL (dimercaprol) 98
 balofloxacin 519

- balsalazide 62, 512
- bambuterol 284
- bamethan 35, 83, 282
- bamifylline 442
- barbital 193, 199
- barbiturates 17, 193, 197–199
- barnidipine 449
- basic drugs, see amines, amidines, etc.
- batimastat 352
- BAY 59-8862 556
- BAY-129566 505
- Bayer 193, 215, 446, 498
- bazedoxifene 261
- BB 83698 356
- bbb penetration 16
- BCH-4556 430
- Bcl-2 inhibitors 365, 375
- BCNU 69
- beclobrate 154
- beclo-methasone dipropionate 478
- beffoxatone 176
- benazepril 164, 339
- bencyclane 236
- bendamustine 56, 151
- bendazac 502
- bendroflumethiazide 452
- benign prostatic hyperplasia 278, 279, 416
- benoxaprofen 144, 501
- benperidol 242
- benproperine 260
- benserazide 137
- benzalkonium 118
- benzamidines 215
- benzarone 88
- benzbromarone 53, 88
- benzene 47
- benzenes, see arenes
- benzidine 133
- benzimidazoles 61, 378, 385, 386
- benznidazole 384
- benzocaine 215
- benzoctamine 306
- benzodiazepine agonists 299
- benzodiazepine antagonists 471
- benzodiazepines 60, 169, 466–476
- benzoic acid 145, 511
- benzoic acids 497, 506–513
- benzonitrile 59
- benzphetamine 273
- benzpyrene 47
- benzthiazide 102, 452
- benzydamine 236
- benzylamine, pK_a 110
- benzylamines 116, 117
- benzylisoquinolines 269
- benzylpenicillin 204, 522, 527
- bepotastine 257
- bepri-dil 136, 227
- beraprost 540
- besifloxacin 519
- besipirdine 403
- beta-adrenergic, see β -adrenergic
- beta-blockers 320
- betahistine 393, 401
- beta-lactamase inhibitors 182, 524
- beta-lactams 522–537
- betamethasone 478
- betamipron 162
- betaxolol 39, 93, 325
- bethanidine 128
- betrixaban 367
- bevantolol 276, 327
- bevirimat 491
- bexarotene 509
- bezafibrate 154
- bezitramide 239
- BG 9928 442
- biapenem 524
- BIBW 2992 373
- bicalutamide 170, 184
- bicifadine 270
- bidisomide 238
- bifemelane 260
- bifeprunox 245
- biguanides 122, 123
- bilastine 155, 256
- biliary excretion 15
- bilobalide 95
- bimatoprost 540
- bioactivation, carcinogens 45, 133, 135
- bioavailability 6, 14
- bioisosteres
 - of carboxylic acids 146
 - of esters 393
 - of phenols 83
 - of thioethers 100
- biological stains, see dyes
- biopterin 408
- biotin 162
- biperiden 233
- bisacodyl 207
- bisaramil 224
- Bischler–Napieralski reaction 269
- bis(2-chloroethyl)sulfide 54
- bisnorbiotin 162
- bisoprolol 325
- bisphenol A 86
- bisphosphonates 210–212

- bisquaternary ammonium salts 118, 119
 bizelesin 300
 Black, James 320
 bleeding, see anticoagulants
 blonanserine 250
 blood clearance 7
 blood–brain barrier 16
 BMS-184476 555
 BMS-204352 200
 BMS-214662 476
 BMS-275183 555
 BMS-317180 356
 BMS-564929 179
 BMS-708163 353
 boceprevir 351
 BOF-4272 445
 bone resorption inhibitors 210–212
 bopindolol 324
 boronic acids 354, 355
 bortezomib 354
 bosentan 407
 Bossert, Friedrich 446
 bosutinib 374, 412
 bradycardics 263
 bradykinin B₂ antagonists 359
 B-raf inhibitors 370
 brasofensine 251
 breathing, see respiratory stimulants
 brequinar 154, 521
 bretylium 117, 118
 brimonidine 126
 brinzolamide 457
 british anti-Lewisite (dimercaprol) 98
 brivanib 372
 brivanib alaninate 372
 brivaracetam 173, 175
 brivudine 53, 433
 brodimoprim 404
 brofaromine 259
 bromazepam 394, 469
 bromazine 235, 393
 bromfenac 500
 bromhexine 53, 116
 bromide 173
 bromine 53
 bromisovalum 193, 195
 bromoarenes 53
 bromobenzene 59
 bromocriptine 296
 bromodiphenhydramine 235
 bromopride 217
 bromotetrandrine 290
 bromovinyluracil 433
 bromperidol 241
 brompheniramine 231
 bronchodilators
 – ammonium salts 222
 – PDE₄ inhibitors 170
 – phenethylamines 280, 281, 283–286
 – xanthines 440–442
 brotalcin 357
 brotizolam 475
 Brotzu, Giuseppe 523
 bucolome 197
 budesonide 480
 budiodarone 261
 budipine 257
 buflomedil 242
 buformin 131
 bufuralol 286
 bumetanide 454, 508
 bunazosin 426
 bupivacaine 344
 bupranolol 39, 321
 buprenorphine 334
 bupropion 281
 burimamide 101
 buserelin 347, 357
 buspirone 249
 Buss, Carl Emil 497
 busulfan 55, 206
 butabarbital 199
 butalbital 198
 butanethiol 98
 butanol 98
 butaperazine 307
 butenafine 116
 butethal 199
 buthionine sulfoximine 157
 butofilolol 325
 butorphanol 331
 butriptyline 313
tert-butylamine, p*K*_a 110
 butylmercaptan 98
 butylscopolamine 222
 butylscopolammonium 118, 222
 O-benzoylmepindolol 324
 γ-butyrolactams 173–176
 butyrophenones 241, 242, 256
- c**
- cabazitaxel 555
 cabergoline 295
 cadralazine 187, 404
 caffeine 440, 451
 calcifediol 488
 calcipotriol 489
 calcitriol 488, 489

- calcium channel blockers
 - arylalkylamines 227, 229, 276, 277, 279
 - dihydropyridines 446–449
 - piperazines 241, 253, 345
- calcium disodium edetate 158
- calcium mimetics (agonists) 229
- calcium regulators 212, 488
- calcium sensitizers 411
- calomel (Hg_2Cl_2) 451
- camazepam 472
- Camptotheca acuminata* 415
- camptothecin 415
- cancer, see antineoplastics
- candesartan 546
- candesartan cilexetil 186, 546
- canertinib 374
- cannabinoid antagonists 171, 234
- canrenone 488
- capecitabine 187, 432
- capillary protectants, see vasoprotectants
- capravirine 190
- capreomycin 1A 564
- capromorelin 356
- captopril 99, 162, 167, 335, 336, 339
- carazolol 326
- carbamates 187–191
- carbamazepine 17, 310, 316
- carbamazepine-10,11-epoxide 310, 316
- (2-carbamoylphenoxy)acetic acid 512
- carbamoyl phosphate I synthase activators 150
- carbapenems 523, 529–537
- carbenicillin 204, 528, 529
- carbetapentane 221
- carbidopa 83, 137, 159
- carbimazole 181, 201
- carbinoxamine 235, 393
- carbocromen 278
- carbohydrates 71, 78–81
- carbonates 186
- carbonic anhydrase inhibitors 385, 451, 454, 457, 458
- carboplatin 158
- N-(carboxyalkyl)- α -amino acid amides 335–340
- carboxylic acids 144–163
 - bioisosteres 146
 - metabolism 145
- carboxylic esters 154, 155, 164
- carboxypeptidases 166
- carbromal 193, 195
- carbutamide 462
- carcinogens 47, 49, 64, 68, 69, 117, 133, 178, 179, 183, 394
- carcinoid syndrom 360
- cardiac arrhythmias 17
- cardiac depressants, see antiarrhythmics
- cardiac glycosides 81
- cardiac myosin activators 372
- cardioprotectives 130, 131, 196, 428
- cardiotonics 182, 276, 324, 400, 406, 410, 411, 425, 487
- cardiovascular agents 278
- carebastine 256
- carfecillin 529
- carfilzomib 352
- carglumic acid 150
- carindacillin 529
- Carini, David J. 543
- cariporide 130
- carisbamate 190
- carisoprodol 189
- carmegliptin 288, 342
- carmofur 434
- carboxirole 248
- carmustine 69
- carnitine 161
- carnitine palmitoyltransferase inhibitors 230
- caroverine 227
- carprofen 501
- carteolol 323
- carticaine 344
- carumonam 534
- carvedilol 326
- casopitant 192, 266
- caspofungin 359
- catecholamines 83, 267, 268
- catechol-O-methyltransferase (COMT) 82, 83, 268
- catechols (1,2-dihydroxybenzenes) 82, 268
- cathartics, see laxatives
- cathepsin K inhibitors 353
- caustics (keratolytics) 148
- Caventou, Joseph Bienaimé 413
- CB 10-277 65, 507
- CCK antagonists 355
- CCR5 (chemokine 5) antagonists 253, 382
- CDK inhibitors 444
- cediranib 373
- cefaclor 530
- cefadroxil 530
- cefamandole 530
- cefatrizine 530
- cefazedone 532
- cefazolin 532
- cefcanel daloxate 186, 532
- cefdinir 533
- cefditoren pivoxil 535

- cefepime 535
- cefetamet 535
- cefetamet pivoxil 535
- cefixime 534
- cefmenoxime 536
- ceffmetazole 532
- cefminox 533
- cefodizime 534
- cefonicid 203, 531
- cefoperazone 536
- ceforanide 531
- cefotaxime 534
- cefotetan 533
- cefotiam 536
- cefoxitin 531
- cefpimizole 537
- cefpiramide 536
- cefprome 534
- cefpodoxime proxetil 186, 535
- cefprozil 530
- ceftroxadine 530
- cefsulodin 532
- ceftaroline fosamil 532
- ceftazidime 534
- ceftibuten 102, 533
- ceftizoxime 533
- ceftobiprole medocaril 537
- ceftriaxone 536
- cefuroxime axetil 535
- celecoxib 455
- celiprolol 324
- centchroman 262
- central nervous system, see CNS
- cephacetrile 531
- cephalexin 529
- cephaloridine 531
- cephalosporins 523, 529–537
- cephalosporin C 523
- cephalothin 531
- cephapirin 531
- cephradine 529
- cerivastatin 550
- ceronapril 209, 339
- cetamolol 322
- cetirizine 254
- cetrorelix 358
- cevimeline 264
- CGRP antagonists 354
- Chain, Ernst Boris 522
- chelating agents 158, 159, 398, 417, 508
- α -chemokine antagonists 565
- chemokine 5 (CCR5) antagonists 253, 382
- chemotherapeutics, see antineoplastics
- chinchona bark 4, 413
- chloral hydrate 74, 138, 188
- chlorambucil 52, 56, 151
- chloramphenicol 60, 73, 78
- chlorcyclizine 252
- chlordiazepoxide 466, 467, 474
- chlorguanide 131
- chlorhexidine 124, 132
- chlorinated biphenyls 52
- chlorine 51
- chlorine vs methyl 52
- chlormadinone 482
- chlormequat 51
- chlormerodrin 451
- chlormethine 55
- chlormezanone 106, 199
- 2-chloroethylamine derivatives 52
- chloromethyl ethers 49
- p*-chlorophenoxyisobutyric acid (CPIB) 154
- 1-(3-chlorophenyl)piperazine 247, 250
- chloroprocaine 216
- chloroquine 4, 113, 413, 414, 420
- chlorothiazide 451, 452
- chlorozotocin 69
- chlorphenesin 76
- chlorpheniramine 4, 71, 231
- chlorphentermine 272
- chlorprogauil 124, 131
- chlorpromazine 4, 109, 301, 304
- chlorpropamide 52, 463
- chlorprothixene 101, 305
- chlorquinaldol 417
- chlortetracycline 492, 494
- chlorthalidone 454
- chlorzoxazone 200
- cholecystokinin antagonists 150
- choleretics (bile excretion enhancers) 77
- cholesterol 548
- cholesteryl ester transfer inhibitors 177, 191
- choline 118
- cholinergics 85, 118, 190, 191, 264, 399, 420
- cholinesterase, see acetylcholinesterase
- choriocarcinoma 551
- chromonar (carbocromen) 278
- CI 941 496
- cibenzoline 125
- cicaprost 539
- ciclazindol 125
- ciclesonide 480
- cicletanine 403
- cicopirox 406
- cidofovir 209, 430
- cifenline 120, 125
- cilansetron 381
- cilastatin 160, 525

- cilazapril 339
- cilnidipine 448
- cilomilast 151
- cilostazol 247
- cimaterol 286
- cimetidine 17, 101, 377, 381
- cimetropium 222
- cimicoxib 455
- cimoxatone 176
- cinacalcet 48, 229
- cinaldipine 448
- cinchonine 422, 521
- cinchophen 153
- cinitapride 219
- cinmetacin 503
- cinnarizine 50, 253
- cinolazepam 474
- cinoxacin 515
- cipemastat 352
- ciprofibrate 144, 154
- ciprofloxacin 17, 514, 517
- ciramadol 73, 276
- cisapride 220, 246
- cisplatin 158
- citalopram 184, 234
- citrulline 157
- cizolirtine 235
- cladribine 436
- clamikalanat 463
- clarithromycin 17, 559
- classic antihistaminics 225; see also histamine H₁ antagonists
- clavulanic acid 524
- clearance 7
- clebopride 219
- clemastine 92, 236
- clenbuterol 35, 83, 286
- clentiazem 473
- clevidipine 448
- clinafloxacin 520
- clindamycin 78, 102
- clinical development 5
- clioquinol 417
- clobazam 474
- clobutinol 281
- clocapramine 168, 240, 314
- clodronic acid 212
- clofarabine 50, 436
- clofazimine 417
- clofibrate 154
- clofictol 87
- clomethiazole 51, 57
- clomiphene 262
- clomipramine 314
- clonazepam 468
- clonidine 123, 126
- clonixin 506
- clopamide 137, 453
- clopenthixol 308
- cloperastine 235
- clopidogrel 265
- cloprednol 479
- clorazepic acid 472
- clot prevention, see anticoagulants, antithrombotics
- clotiazepam 475
- clotrimazole 387, 388
- cloxacillin 528
- cloxazolam 473
- clozapine 19, 318
- CMN 131 396
- CMX001 430
- CNDAC 432
- CNS stimulants
 - amidines 125, 128
 - benzhydrylamines 313
 - indoles 299
 - indolones 403
 - phenethylamines 251, 270, 271
 - sulfoxides 157
 - xanthines 440
- coagulation factors, see factor Xa inhibitors
- cocaethylene 224
- cocaine 215, 224
- cocaine addiction 241
- codeine 91, 108, 269, 332
- coffee 397, 398; see also caffeine
- COL-3 495
- colchicine 476
- colorectal cancer; see antineoplastics
- common cold 225
- compactin (mevastatin) 548
- COMT inhibitors 83, 85, 86
- congestive heart failure 275, 411
- conivaptan 376
- conjugation reactions (phase II reactions) 15
- constipation 329; see also laxatives
- contergan 189
- contraceptives 262, 481–486, 490
- contrast agents 72, 75, 76
- coronary artery disease 548
- coronary vasodilators, see vasodilators
- corticosteroids 477–481
- cortisol 479
- cortisol biosynthesis inhibitors 196
- cortisone 477, 479
- cotinine 175, 395, 402

- cough suppressants, see antiussives
 coumarin 141
 COX inhibitors 455, 498
 CP 14304 460
 CPI-1189 217
 CPIB 154
 creatine 127, 394
 creatinine 127, 394
 cremophor EL 554
 crizotinib 369
 cromakalim 3, 174
 cromoglicic acid 510
 cromolyn 510
 CS-758 389
 curare 289
 curcumin 89
 cyamemazine 305
 cyanide 184
 cyanoguanidines 202, 400
 cyclacillin 526
 cyclamate 37, 115, 205, 208
 cyclic peptides 347, 358–361, 563, 564
 cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitors 258
 cyclizine 226, 252
 cyclobarbitol 197
 cyclobenzaprine 311
 cyclofenil 87
 cycloguanil 405
 cycloheptane 100
 cyclohexane 100
 1,2-cyclohexanediol 141
 1,4-cyclohexanediol 141
 cyclohexanes 37
 cyclohexanol 141
 cyclohexanone 141
 cyclohexylamine 115
 cyclooxygenase (COX) 538
 cyclooxygenase inhibitors 455, 456, 497–513
 cyclopentane 91, 100
 cyclophosphamide 52, 55
 cyclopropylamine, pK_a 110
 cyclopropylmethyl group 39, 93
 cycloserine 160
 cyclosporine 358
 CYP-inhibition/induction 16, 17, 394, 395
 cyproheptadine 254, 314, 393
 cyproterone acetate 481
 cysteine 162
 cystemustine 69
 cystic fibrosis 508
 cytarabine 432
 cytochrome P450, see CYP
 cytotoxic drugs, see antineoplastics
- d**
 DA-8159 443
 dabigatran etexilate 121, 363
 dacarbazine 65, 382
 daidzein 88
 dalfampridine 398
 dalfopristin 563
 daltroban 156
 danazol 485
 dantrolene 108, 183
 danusertib 368
 dapagliflozin 79
 dapiprazole 246
 dapotum 308
 dapoxetine 48, 228
 dapsone 87, 134
 darbufelone 85
 darexaban 367
 darifenacin 238, 278
 darinaparsin 355
 darodipine 448
 darunavir 352
 dasatinib 369
 daunorubicin 492, 493
 DDT 52
 dealkylation
 – of amides 169
 – of amines 110–114
 – of ethers 92
 – of lanosterol 387
 debrisoquin 128
 decitabine 430
 decongestants 124, 126, 280, 282
 DEET 169
 deferasirox 508
 deferiprone 398
 deferoxamine 357
 deflazacort 481
 dehalogenation 53
 dehydrogenase inhibitors 194
 deiodination 53
 delapril 338
 delavirdine 294, 425
 demeclocycline 494
 dementia 217
 4-demethoxydaunorubicin 493
 demexiptiline 313
 demoxepam 467, 474
 denaverine 165, 221
 2-deoxy-2-methylenecytidine 431
 2'-deoxyguanosine 437

- deprenyl 271
- deramciclane 234
- N-desalkylflurazepam 469
- des-ciclesonide 480
- desethylchloroquine 113, 414
- desferrioxamine 357
- desglymidodrine 167, 285
- desipramine 112, 114, 134, 311
- desloratadine 114, 255, 315, 393
- desmethylfluoxetine 112, 228
- N-desmethylinatinib 112, 396
- desmethyisibutramine 112
- O-desmethylvenlafaxine 276
- desmopressin 360
- desogestrel 140, 484
- desoxypropidol 229
- detergents (disinfectants) 82, 87, 118
- detoxification 18
- development of drugs 13
- dexamethasone 17, 50, 478
- dexmedetomidine 378, 379
- dexrazoxane 172, 196
- dextromethorphan 331
- dextromoramide 237
- dextrorphanol 331
- dezocine 274
- DG-051 260
- diabetes, see antidiabetics
- diabetic neuropathy 163, 178
- diabetic retinopathy 375
- diacerein 89, 495, 513
- diacetolol 324
- diacetylmorphine 333
- diacetylrhein 89, 495, 513
- diagnostic aids 401, 508
- diagnostic dyes, see dyes
- diamines 109, 119
- 2,4-diaminoanisole 133
- 3,4-diaminopyridine 398
- diaphoretics (sweating inducers) 380
- diazepam 93, 169, 468, 471
- diazepinomicin 317
- diazomethane 64
- diazonium salts 64
- diazoxide 452
- dibekacin 80
- dibenzazepines 310–317
- dibenzepin 317
- dibromoanthranilic acid 117
- 1,2-dibromoethane 49
- dichloroacetic acid 148
- dichlorobenzene 59
- 2,6-dichlorobenzaldehyde 130
- 2,6-dichlorobenzylalcohol 130
- 2,6-dichlorophenol 126
- dichlorphenamide 454
- dichlorvos 74
- diclofenac 47, 505
- dicloxacillin 528
- dicoumarol 143
- dicyclomine 221
- dicycloverine 221
- didanosine 435
- dienogest 184, 486
- diet, see anorexics
- diethylamine, pK_a 110
- 5,5-diethylbarbituric acid 193
- diethylcarbamazine 192, 194
- diethylcathinone 270
- diethylpropion 270
- diethylstilbestrol 87
- diethylthiomethylcarbamate 194
- difenoxin 239
- diflomotecan 424
- difloxacin 517
- diflunisal 513
- difluorodeoxyuridine 431
- difluoroethylamine, pK_a 110
- digitalis 81
- digitoxin 81, 451
- digoxin 81
- dihydroazacytidine 430
- dihydrobiopterin 408
- dihydrocodeine 332
- dihydroergocristine 296
- dihydroergocryptine 296
- dihydroergotamine 296
- dihydroergotoxine 297
- dihydrofolate reductase inhibitors 408, 409, 551–553
- dihydroorotate dehydrogenase inhibitors 20, 169
- dihydropyridines 60, 446–449
- dihydrotachysterol 488
- dihydroxybenzenes 82, 83
- 1,2-dihydroxycyclohexane 141
- diloxanide furoate 85
- Dilthey, Alfred 193
- diltiazem 17, 165, 446, 474
- dimercaprol (British anti-Lewisite, 2,3-dimercaptopropanol) 98
- dimethadione 177
- dimethindene 232
- 4-dimethylaminoazobenzene 133
- dimethylamino group 109–112
- 4-dimethylaminostilbene 133
- 2,6-dimethylaniline 341, 343
- dimethylcysteine 99, 159, 339

- dimethylether 100
- dimethyl fumarate 149
- dimethylnitrosodamantane 115
- N*-(2,6-dimethylphenyl)glycinamides 341
- dimethylsulfide 100
- dinoprostone 539
- dioxin (tetrachlorodioxin) 52
- dipeptidylpeptidase IV, *see also* DPPIV
- diphenhydramine 17, 225, 234, 377
- diphenoxylate 239
- diphenylpyraline 257
- dipipanone 237
- (*S*)-diprafenone 325
- diprophylline 441
- dipropyl ether 91
- dipyrone 181, 203
- dirithromycin 561
- discovery of drugs 3
- disinfectants 82, 87, 118
- disobutamide 108, 238
- disopyramide 108, 238
- dispersion (London) forces 51
- disposition of drugs 15
- distigmine 399
- distribution, volume of 6
- disulfiram 194, 202
- ditazol 75
- diuretics
 - aldosterone antagonists 487, 488
 - loop 131, 155, 161, 181, 385
 - mercurial 451
 - sodium channel blockers 130, 408
 - sulfonamides 450, 452–455, 457, 463
 - osmotic 76, 77, 193
 - other 230, 441
- DJ-927 556
- DMDC 431
- DMSO 101
- DMXAA 505
- DNA gyrase 514
- DNA gyrase inhibitors 8, 514
- DNA ligands 357
- DNA methylation inhibitors 429
- dobutamine 276
- docetaxel 554
- dofetilide 279
- dolasetron 223
- Domagk, Gerhard 62, 450
- domperidone 244
- donepezil 139, 245
- L*-dopa, *see* levodopa
- dopamine 267, 268
- dopamine agonists 250, 272, 275, 296
- dopamine antagonists 217, 240–242, 244, 245, 260
- dopamine D_{A2} agonists 248
- dopamine D₂ agonists 274, 275
- dopamine D₂ antagonists 217–219, 240, 250
- dopamine D₃ antagonists 27, 218
- dopamine D₄ antagonists 246
- dopamine reuptake inhibitors 241, 251, 281, 516
- dopamine transport blockers 230
- dopamine–norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors 281
- dopamine receptors 225
- dopexamine 276
- doranidazole 383
- doripenem 524
- dorzolamide 457
- dosulepin 313
- dothiepin 101, 313
- doxacurium 289
- doxapram 234
- doxazosin 425
- doxefazepam 474
- doxepin 101, 145, 312
- doxercalciferol 489
- doxofylline 138, 441
- doxorubicin 492
- doxycycline 493
- doxylamine 92, 235
- DPPIV inhibitors 8, 23, 273, 288, 342, 345, 346, 355, 435, 443
- droloxifene 263
- dronabinol 86
- dronedarone 261
- droperidol 242
- drospirenone 488
- drotaverine 287
- drug development 3
- drug discovery 3
- drug–drug interactions 16
- drug excipients 77
- DTI-0009 438
- duloxetine 228
- Duncia, John V. 543
- DuP 697 456
- DuPont 543
- dutasteride 487
- dydrogesterone 482
- dyes 62, 89, 90, 300, 495, 508, 512
- dyes, as antibacterials 62, 512
- dynorphins 329
- dyphylline 441
- dyskinesia (tremor) 217, 287, 401

e

- E-2020 245
- EAA 090 211
- ebastine 256
- ebrotidine 132
- ecstasy 275
- edatrexate 552
- edotecarin 375
- edoxaban 367
- edrophonium 85
- EDTA 158
- EF5 384
- efaproxiral 154
- efavirenz 17, 188, 200
- efegatran 364
- eflornithine 157
- EHNA 444
- Ehrlich, Paul 62
- eicosanoids 538
- elcometrine 481
- electron-poor alkenes (Michael acceptors)
19, 155
- electrophilic metabolites 17–19
- elesclomol 194
- eletriptan 293
- elgodipine 449
- eliglustat 279
- elimination of drugs 15
- elinogrel 465
- eliprodil 283
- eltanolone 483
- eltoprazine 134, 250
- eltrombopag 140, 153
- elvitegravir 516
- elvucitabine 433
- EMD 87580 106, 123, 130
- emedastine 258
- emepromium 230
- emetics 287
- emtricitabine 138, 431
- enalapril 335, 336
- enalkiren 357
- encainide 220
- enclomiphene 262
- endopeptidases 166
- endorphins 329
- endothelin antagonists 151, 369, 407, 408,
458, 509
- endralazine 137, 419
- enilconazole 388
- eniporide 130
- enkephalins 329
- enocitabine 432
- enoltasartan 546, 547
- enoxacin 17, 517
- enoximone 182
- enprofylline 440
- ensaculin 247
- entacapone 83, 86
- entecavir 73, 437
- enterohepatic recirculation 15
- entinostat 136, 188, 366
- enzastaurin 375
- enzymatic activation 18, 19
- epalrestat 153, 201
- epanolol 327
- eperisone 242
- ephedrine 280
- epichlorohydrin 49
- epinastine 316
- epinephrine (adrenaline) 3, 267
- epirubicin 492
- eplerenone 96, 488
- eplivanserine 236
- epothilone B 564
- epoxide hydrolase inhibitors 28
- epoxides 96
- epristeride 487
- eprosdisate 203, 204
- eprosartan 545
- eptastigmine 191
- erdosteine 162
- Erdtman, Holger 341
- erectile dysfunction 299, 442, 443, 539
- ergocalciferol 488
- ergocristine, see dihydroergocristine
- ergoloid 297
- ergosterol 387
- ergot alkaloids 291, 296, 297
- ergotamine 296
- erlotinib 44, 374, 415
- ertapenem 525
- erythrohydroxynonyladenine 444
- erythromycin 17, 108, 557, 560
- eslicarbazepine acetate 316
- esmolol 326
- esophageal reflux, see antiulceratives
- estazolam 470
- esters 154, 155, 164
- estradiol 44, 477, 486
- estramustine 56
- estriol 486
- estrogen receptor modulators 260–262
- estrogens 87, 477, 485, 486
- estrone 486
- ET-743 288
- etafenoxine 125
- etamiphylline 442

etamsylate 203, 205
 etanidazole 383
 ethacrynic acid 155, 451
 ethambutol 116
 ethanol 17, 71, 74
 ethanolamine, pK_a 110
 ethchlorvynol 44, 74
 ethers 91
 ethinamate 44
 3'-C-ethinylcytidine 431
 ethinyl estradiol 44, 82, 485
 ethinyl estradiol-3-sulfate 485
 ethinyl estradiol-17-sulfate 485
 ethionamide 201, 400
 ethopropazine 303
 ethosuximide 172, 177
 ethoxybenzene 91
 ethoxybenzenes 91, 92
 ethoxzolamide 385, 457
 ethylamphetamine 270
N-(2-ethylbutanoyl)urea 193
 ethyl carbamate 188
 ethylenediamine 110, 116
 ethylene glycol 76
 ethylenimines (aziridines) 54
 ethyl ethers 91
 ethylphenylmalonamide 196
 etidocaine 343
 etidronic acid 212
 etifoxine 125
 etilefrin 282
 etintidine 382
 etizolam 475
 etodolac 501
 etofenamate 506
 etofylline 440
 etomidate 380
 etonogestrel 140, 484
 etoperidone 247
 etoposide 89
 etoricoxib 106, 403, 456
 etozolin 161
 etravirine 184, 405
 etretinate 153
 β -eucaine 215
 everolimus 559
 exatecan 424
 excipients 77
 excitatory amino acids, see AMPA, GABA, NMDA
 excretion of drugs 14, 15
 exemestane 486
 exopeptidases 166
 EXP 3174 545

EXP 6155 544
 EXP 6803 544
 EXP 7711 544
 expectorants 76, 116, 117; see also mucolytics
 ezetimibe 86
 ezogabine 404

f

Fabry disease 279
 factor Xa inhibitors 170, 176, 177, 266, 363, 367, 370
 fadrozole 390
 falipamil 276
 famciclovir 443
 famotidine 122, 132
 fampridine 398
 fantofarone 277
 Farber, Sidney 551
 farnesyltransferase inhibitors 255, 380, 476
 faropenem 524
 fasudil 422
 fatigue suppression 268
 fazadinium 410
 fazarabine 430
 FDA 9, 10
 febuprol 73, 77
 febuxostat 510
 felbamate 17, 19, 20, 188, 189
 felodipine 60, 108, 447
 femoxetine 251
 fenbufen 150
 fenclofenac 47, 505
 fenclozic acid 504
 fendiline 229
 fendosal 513
 fenethazine 301
 fenfluramine 271
 fenofibrate 155
 fenoldopam 272
 fenopropfen 501
 fenoterol 284
 fenpiprane 71, 232
 fenproporex 271
 fenquizon 453
 fenspiride 188, 243
 fentanyl 243
 fentiazac 504
 feprazone 180
 fesoterodine 232
 fever, see NSAIDs
 fexinidazole 384
 fexofenadine 256
 fiacitabine 431

- fialuridine 431, **433**
 - fibrates 144, 154, 155, 548
 - fibrin 349
 - fibrinogen 349
 - fibrinogen antagonists 361
 - fidarestat 178
 - fidaxomicin 562
 - fiduxosin 278
 - Filehne, Wilhelm 173
 - finasteride 487
 - figingolmod 73, 77
 - finrozole 390
 - first-pass metabolism 14, 15
 - Fischer, Emil 193
 - Fischer, Otto 172
 - five-membered lactams 173–176
 - FK506 559
 - FK-binding protein 557
 - flavopiridol 252
 - flavoxate 88, 164
 - flecainide 220
 - Fleming, Alexander 522
 - fleroxacin 518
 - flesinoxan 245
 - flestolol 195
 - flomoxef 533
 - Florey, Howard 522
 - flosequinan 418, 515
 - flosulide 455
 - flovagatran 355
 - floxacin 528
 - flucloxacillin 528
 - fluconazole 17, 213, **389**
 - flucytosine 434
 - fludarabine 436
 - fludiazepam 60, 93, **469**
 - flufenamic acid 394, **507**
 - fluindione 142
 - flumazenil 471
 - flumezinol 74
 - flumequine 515
 - flunarizine 41, 50, 253
 - flunisolide 480
 - flunitrazepam 60, **468**
 - flunoxaprofen 501
 - fluocinolone acetonide 480
 - fluocortolone 481
 - fluorescein 508
 - fluorine 49
 - 2-fluoroaniline 49
 - 2-fluorophenol 49
 - 1-(4-fluorophenyl)piperazine 250
 - 5-fluorouracil 434
 - fluoxetine 10, 17, 112, 228
 - fluoxymesterone 485
 - flupentixol 309
 - fluphenazine 308
 - flupirtine 188, 394, **404**
 - flurazepam 469, **474**
 - flurbiprofen 499
 - flurithromycin 560
 - flusoxolol 325
 - flutamide 170
 - fluticasone 50, **481**
 - flutoprazepam 93, **469**
 - fluvastatin 17, **549**
 - fluvoxamine 17, 140, **236, 272**
 - folic acid analogs 551–553
 - folinic acid 552
 - fomepizole 379, **388**
 - fominoben 345
 - formamides 356
 - formestane 487
 - formoterol 283
 - 4-(formylamino)antipyrene 181
 - forodesine 437
 - fosamprenavir 214, 351
 - fosaprepitant 214
 - foscarnet 209, **210**
 - fosfluconazole 213, **390**
 - fosfomycin 209, **210**
 - fosinopril 339
 - fosmidomycin 209, **211**
 - fosphenytoin 179, 213
 - fospropofol 84
 - fostamatinib 366
 - fostricin 214
 - fotemustine 69
 - fradafiban 362
 - Franke, Hans 462
 - frovatriptan 293
 - Fuchs, Joachim 462
 - fulvestrant 486
 - fungal infections, see antifungals
 - fungicides 86
 - furafylline 441
 - Furakawa, Y. 543
 - furegrelate 510
 - furosemide 454, **508**
 - fusidic acid 152, **491**
 - future of small molecule drugs 9
- g**
- GABA agonists 149, 160, 161, 204, 391
 - GABA receptor modulators 483
 - GABA reuptake inhibitors 240
 - gabapentin 37, **160**
 - gaboxadol 161, **264**

- galantamine 334
 - gallamine 259
 - gallopamil 277
 - ganaxolone 483
 - ganciclovir 437
 - ganglionic blocking agents 118
 - Gardos channel inhibitors 151
 - garenoxacin 521
 - gastric ulcers, see antiulceratives
 - gastrin project 396
 - gastrointestinal tract 14
 - gastroprokinetics 217–220, 246, 355
 - gastroprotectants 141, 541
 - gatifloxacin 518
 - Gaucher's disease 78, 279
 - gefitinib 373, 412
 - gemcitabine 73, 431
 - gemfibrozil 154, 550
 - gemifloxacin 520
 - genaconazole 389
 - genistein 88
 - gentamicin 80
 - gentisamide 512
 - gentisic acid 511
 - gepefrine 273
 - gepirone 249
 - gestodene 484
 - gimatecan 423
 - glaucoma 122, 126
 - glibenclamide 464
 - glibornuride 463
 - gliclazide 463
 - glimepiride 464
 - glipizide 464
 - gliquidone 464
 - glisoxepid 464
 - GLP-1 342
 - glucocorticoids 477–481
 - glucose transporter inhibitors 79
 - glucosylceramide synthase inhibitors 279
 - glucuronidation 15, 146
 - glutarimides 172, 195, 196
 - glutathione 15, 157
 - glutathione transferases 15
 - glutethimide 172, 196
 - glyburide 464
 - glycerin dinitrate 66
 - glycerol 71, 76
 - glycine, as solubility enhancer 114, 166
 - glycine ethyl ester, pK_a 110
 - glycol 76
 - glycopyrrolate 221
 - glycosides
 - anthracycline 492, 493
 - antibacterial 78–81
 - cardiac 81
 - glymidine 458
 - GnRH agonists 357, 358
 - GnRH antagonists 358
 - gold sodium thiomalate 158
 - gonadotropin agonists 347
 - goserelin 358
 - gout suppressants 476, 510
 - gramine 341
 - granisetron 223
 - grapefruit 16, 17
 - grepafloxacin 17, 517
 - growth hormone 17
 - growth hormone secretagogues 356
 - Grünenthal 189
 - guaifenesin 76
 - guanabenz 122, 130
 - guanadrel 128, 140
 - guanethidine 122, 128
 - guanfacine 123, 130, 342
 - guanidine 127
 - guanidines 122
 - guanoxan 128
 - guanylate cyclase stimulators 370
 - gut 14
 - GW597599 265
 - gyrase inhibitors 514
- ## h
- haemo-, see hemo-
 - halazepam 169, 470
 - half-life of drugs 6, 15
 - halides 49
 - hallucinogenics 116, 264, 275, 295
 - haloalkanes 49
 - halofantrine 113, 233
 - halofenate 155
 - halofenic acid 155
 - haloperidol 17, 72, 139, 241
 - halothane 53
 - hay fever 225–227, 252–258; see also
 - antipruritics, histamine H_1 antagonists
 - headache, see migraine, antimigraine agents
 - heart failure 372, 509
 - heart valve damage 271
 - heat shock protein 8
 - heavy-metal poisoning, antidotes for 158, 159, 162
 - hedgehog signaling inhibitors 366
 - hedonal 193
 - helminths (worms), see anthelmintics
 - hemiacetals 92, 138
 - hemoglobin 133, 138, 154, 509

- hemolytic anemia 133, 517
- hemorheologic agents 441
- hemorrhage, *see* anticoagulants
- hemostatics 148, 157, 160, 182, 205
- heparin 349
- hepatic enzyme inducers 74
- hepatitis 351, 436
- hepatitis C virus protease inhibitors 351
- hepatoprotectants 159, 162
- hepatotoxicity 18
- heptabarbital 197
- heptane 91
- herbicides 84, 142, 155, 397, 402
- hERG 17
- heroin 164, 333
- Hertz, Roy 551
- hexachlorocyclohexane (lindane) 56
- hexachlorophene 87
- hexanols, solubility 36
- hexobarbital 41, 197
- hippuric acid 145, 511
- histamine 107, 377, 379, 393
- histamine agonists 377, 379, 401
- histamine antagonists 377
- histamine H₁ antagonists 155, 225, 227, 230–232, 234–236, 239, 248, 252–258, 303, 304, 312, 316, 402, 442
- histamine H₂ antagonists 101, 132, 264, 377, 380–382, 402
- histamine H₃ antagonists 377
- histamine H₄ antagonists 377
- histamine receptors 225
- histidine 377
- histone deacetylase inhibitors 156, 360, 366, 367
- HIV integrase inhibitors 26, 516
- HIV protease inhibitors 25, 350–352, 354; *see also* antivirals
- HIV-1 maturation inhibitors 491
- HMG CoA reductase inhibitors 548–550
- Hodkin, Dorothy Crowfoot 522
- Hoechst 173, 215
- Hoffmann, Felix 498
- Hoffmann-La Roche 466
- homotaurine 204
- hormone replacement therapy 477, 484
- HSP70 inducers 194
- HSP90 inhibitors 8
- human ether-à-go-go related gene 17
- hycanthone 496
- hydantoins 178, 179, 183
- hydralazine 137, 419
- hydrazines 137
- hydrazones 137
- hydrocephalus 94
- hydrochlorothiazide 452
- hydrocodone 91, 92, 332
- hydrocortisone 479
- hydroflumethiazide 452
- hydromorphone 91, 92, 331
- hydrophilic pores 14, 119
- hydrophilicity, effect on PK 6, 7, 71, 72
- hydroxamic acids 146, 147, 156, 157, 352, 353
- hydroxy acids 157
- N-hydroxyamidines 120, 121
- 4-hydroxybutyric acid 149
- 10-hydroxycarbamazepine 316
- hydroxychloroquine 420
- 1-hydroxycholecalciferol 489
- 3-hydroxycotinine 176, 402
- 3-hydroxydihydroquinidine 422
- hydroxyethylmorphine 332
- 5-hydroxyindoles 159
- hydroxyindolylacetic acid 159
- 3-hydroxyquinidine 42
- hydroxylamines 133, 135
- 5-hydroxymethyltolterodine 232
- hydroxynortriptyline 312
- hydroxytramterene sulfate 408
- 2-hydroxy-4-trifluoromethylbenzoic acid 511
- hydroxytrimazosin 73
- 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT), *see* serotonin
- 5-hydroxytryptophan 159
- hydroxyurea 192, 194
- 1 α -hydroxyvitamin D₂ 489
- hydroxyzine 254
- hyoscyamine (atropine) 223
- hyperammonemia 149, 150
- hypercalcemia 212
- hypercholesterolemia 548
- hypericin 90
- hyperprolactinemia 274, 294–296
- hypertension 543; *see also* antihypertensives
- hyperuricemia 445
- hypnotics
 - acyclic ureides 193, 195
 - alcohols 74
 - amides 288, 371, 410, 426, 427
 - barbiturates 193, 197–199
 - benzodiazepines 466–476
 - carbamates 188, 189
 - other 74, 161, 235, 236, 380
 - phenothiazines 303, 305
 - piperidinediones 195, 196, 199
- hypoglycemia 452
- hypolipidemics 87
- hyponatremia 376

hypotensives, see antihypertensives

hypoxanthine 435

hypoxia probes 384

hypoxia-selective antineoplastics 419

i

ibandronic acid 211

ibudilast 440

ibuprofen 497, 498

ibuproxam 498

ibutilide 285

ICA-17043 151

icatibant 359

ICI 320

ICL 670 508

iclaprim 405

icofungipen 160

idarubicin 493

idarubicinol 493

idazoxan 125

idebenone 141

idoxuridine 433

idrapril 352

idroclamide 75

idronoxil 89

ifenprodil 283

ifetroban 156

ifosfamide 55

I. G. Farben 450

ilaprazole 410

iloperidone 245

iloprost 540

imatinib 112, 368

imidafenacin 237, 380

imidapril 337

imidazole 377, 379

imidazoles 377–386

imidazolines 120

imides 146, 172

imipenem 525

imipramine 101, 112, 310, 311

imipramine *N*-oxide 112, 311

imiquimod 418

immunogenicity 347, 523

immunomodulators 77, 169, 174, 196, 418,
436, 439, 559

immunostimulants 565

immunosuppressants 55, 153, 154, 358,
403, 428, 439, 496, 557–559

incadronic acid 211

INCB 9471 253

incontinence 220, 232, 238

indacaterol 283

indalpine 259

indanazoline 126

indapamide 453

indecainide 238

indeloxazine 280, 322

indinavir 17, 349, 350

indiplon 371

indirectly acting sympathomimetics 268

indobufen 500

indocyanine green 300

indole alkaloids 291–300

indomethacin 146, 502

indoprofen 499

indoramin 244

induction of CYP 16

infertility 477

inflammation, see antiinflammatories

inhibition of CYP 16

injection (parenteral dosing) of drugs 15–17

inogatan 364

inosine 435

inotropics, see cardiotonics

insect repellents 169

insecticides 56, 84, 457

in silico drug discovery 9

insulin secretagogues 129

insulin sensitizers 151, 152, 178, 179

interactions, drug–drug 16

intercalators 492, 496

intestine 14

intoplicine 299

intoxication 17–20

intraocular pressure 126; see also

antiglaucoma agents

iodine 53

iodixanol 75

iodoquinol 54, 417

iohexol 54, 75

iomeprol 75

iopamidol 72, 76

iopromide 75

iosimide 76

ipratropium 222

ipriflavone 88

iprindole 236

iproniazid 137, 400

ipsapirone 249

irbesartan 38, 545

irinotecan 424

irofulven 141

iron chelators 357, 508

irreversible tyrosine kinase inhibitors 374

irritable bowel disease 217, 278, 281, 381

irsogladine 407

isatoribine 436

isavuconazole 387, 388
 isepamicin 80
 isoamyl nitrite 66
 isobutyl nitrite 66
 isofagomine 78
 isofezolac 504
 isoflavones 88
 isogramine 341
 isomazole 410
 isoniazid 17, 137, 399
 isopropylamine, pK_a 110
 isoproterenol 83, 284
 isoquinolines 269
 isosorbide 94
 isosorbide dinitrate 66, 93
 isosorbide mononitrate 66, 94
 isosteres, see bioisosteres
 isotretinoin 153
 isovaleramide 148
 isoxicam 460
 isoxsuprine 283
 ispinesib 374
 ispronidine 401
 isradipine 108, 448
 istaroxime 487
 istradefylline 442
 itasetron 223
 itching, see antipruritics
 itraconazole 17, 140, 391
 ivabradine 277
 ivermectin 562
 ixabepilone 96, 564

j

Jendrassik, Ernst 451

k

KA-672 247
 kairine 173
 kairolin A 173
 kanamycin B 80
 karenitecin 423
 keratolytics 148
 ketamine 281
 ketanserin 244
 ketazolam 473
 ketobemidone 330
 ketoconazole 17, 391
 3-ketodesogestrel 484
 2-ketodoxapram 234
 ketones 139
 ketoprofen 500
 ketorolac 503

ketotifen 255, 315
 kidneys 15
 kinase inhibitors 422, see also
 antineoplastics
 kinesin spindle protein inhibitors 374
 Klarer, Josef 62, 450
 Knorr, Ludwig 173
 Koenigs, Wilhelm 172
 Kolbe, Adolph Wilhelm Hermann 497
 Koller, Carl 215
 KRN-5500 444
 Kuhn, Roland 310
 Kurzrok, Raphael 538
 KW-6002 442

l

labetalol 285
 Laborit, Henri 301
 lacidipine 448
 lacosamide 354
 lactams 172–183
 β -lactams 522–537
 lactic acidosis 131
 lactones 165, 559–562, 564
 lactulose 78
 lafutidine 402
 lamifiban 361
 lamivudine 431
 lamotrigine 405
 landiolol 327
 laninamivir 129
 lanosterol 387
 lanreotide 360
 lansoprazole 409
 lapatinib 374
 laquinimod 461
 laropiprant 144, 505
 lasofoxifene 111, 262
 latamoxef 533
 latanoprost 541
 laxatives 77, 78, 130, 207, 264, 539
 lazabemide 401
 LBM 415 356
 lead discovery 3–8
 lead optimization 13–20
 lecozotan 245
 leflunomide 169
 lefradafiban 187, 362
 lenalidomide 172, 196
 lenampicillin 526
 leprostatics 87
 lercanidipine 448
 lesopitron 249
 letrozole 184, 390

- leucovorin 552
 - leukemia 206, 493, 509, 551
 - leukotriene A₄ hydrolase inhibitor 260
 - leukotriene D₄ antagonists 423, 511
 - leukotrienes 538
 - leuprorelin 358
 - levallorphan 331
 - levamisole 127
 - levetiracetam 168, 173, 175
 - levobunolol 47, 321, 323
 - levocabastine 239
 - levodopa 83, 159
 - levodropropizine 248
 - levofloxacin 519
 - levomepromazine 305
 - levomethorphan 331
 - levonorgestrel 483, 484
 - levoprotiline 306
 - levorphanol 331
 - levosimendan 411
 - levovirin 429
 - librium 466
 - licofelone 504
 - lidocaine 215, 341, 342, 343
 - lidoflazine 241, 345
 - Lieb, Charles 538
 - Liebreich, Oscar 188
 - lignocaine 343
 - linagliptin 41, 111, 342, 443
 - lincomycin 78
 - lindane 56
 - linezolid 176
 - linifanib 371
 - linopirdine 403
 - lipase inhibitors 152
 - lipid peroxidation inhibitors 490
 - lipid-lowering drugs, *see* antilipemics
 - 5-lipoxygenase inhibitors 194
 - lirimilast 195
 - lisinopril 336
 - Lister, Joseph 82
 - lisuride 192, 295
 - litracene 306
 - liver 13–19
 - lixivaptan 376
 - lobeline 263
 - lobucavir 438
 - local anesthetics 77, 84, 215, 216, 224, 236, 341–344, 483
 - locomotor stimulants 516
 - lofepramine 114, 311
 - lofexidine 120, 126, 342
 - lomefloxacin 518
 - lometrexol 552
 - lomustine 68
 - lonafarnib 255
 - lonazolac 504
 - London dispersion forces 51
 - long QT syndrome 17
 - lonidamine 502
 - loop diuretics 131, 155, 161, 181, 385
 - loperamide 241
 - lopinavir 350
 - loprazolam 475
 - loracarbef 530
 - loratadine 226, 255, 315
 - lorazepam 473
 - lorcainide 113, 257
 - lorcaserin 272
 - lormetazepam 472
 - lornoxicam 460
 - losartan 543–545
 - losoxantrone 496
 - lotrafiban 361
 - lovastatin (mevinolin) 548, 549
 - loxapine 19, 318
 - loxiglumide 355
 - loxoprofen 498
 - LSD 295
 - lubeluzole 246, 327
 - lubiprostone 539
 - lucanthone 496
 - lumefantrine 233
 - lumiracoxib 506
 - lurasidone 249
 - lurtotecan 424
 - lusitropics 487
 - LY-517717 266
 - lymecycline 494
 - lysergic acid diethylamide 295
- m**
- mabuterol 286
 - macitentan 408
 - macrocyclic compounds 557–565
 - macrolides 557–564
 - Maillard reaction 394
 - malaria, *see* antiprotozoals
 - manidipine 449
 - mannitol 71, 77
 - MAO inhibitors 117, 216, 259, 270, 271, 273, 293, 400, 401
 - MAP kinase inhibitors 366
 - maprotiline 306
 - maraviroc 240
 - marijuana, *see* THC
 - marimastat 353
 - masitinib 368

- matrix metalloproteinase inhibitors 21, 26, 352, 353, 495
- maxipost 200
- mazindol 125
- MDMA 275
- mebendazole 385
- mechlorethamine 52, 55
- meclizine 252
- meclofenamic acid 506
- meclozine 252
- medazepam 471
- medifoxamine 138, 259
- medrogestone 483
- medroxalol 285
- medroxyprogesterone 482
- medroxyprogesterone acetate 482
- mefenamic acid 136, 506
- mefloquine 111, 414, 422
- mefruside 454
- megestrol acetate 482
- meglumine 77
- MEK inhibitors 372
- melagatran 362
- melanin-concentrating hormone receptor-1 antagonists 29
- melatonin 292
- melatonin MT₁/MT₂ agonists 275
- melitracene 306
- melogliptin 346
- meloxicam 460
- melperone 242
- melphalan 56, 151
- memantine 37, 115
- menogaril 493
- menopausal hot flushes 218
- menthol 74
- meobentine 128
- meperidine 251
- mephentermine 271
- mephobarbital 41, 197
- mepindolol 324
- mepivacaine 343
- meprobamate 189
- meptazinol 274
- mepyramine 227
- mequitazine 304
- merbaphen 451
- mercamphamide 451
- mercaptans 98
- mercaptoethanesulfonic acid (mesna) 99, 203, 205
- mercaptoimidazole (thiamazole) 182, 379
- mercaptomerin 451
- mercaptopurine 99, 439
- mercaptovaline 99, 159, 339
- Merck & Co. 544
- mercumatilin 451
- mercurous chloride 451
- mercury-containing drugs 451
- meropenem 525
- mersalyl 451
- mesalazine 511
- mescaline 145, 275
- mesna 99, 203, 205
- mesotrione 142
- mestranol 485
- mesylates 206
- metabolic activation 17–19, 133
- metaclozepam 472
- metaldehyde 94
- metamizol 181
- metapramine 317
- metaproterenol 284
- metapyrilene 225, 227
- metaraminol 282
- metastat 495
- metaxalone 177
- metformin 124, 131
- methacycline 494
- methadone 139, 237
- methamphetamine 270
- methanesulfonic esters 206
- methaqualone 419
- methazolamide 457
- methdilazine 304
- methemoglobin 133
- methicillin 528
- methimazole 99, 182, 379
- methionine 159
- methitural 102
- methixene 304
- methocarbamol 190
- methohexital 41, 198
- methotrexate 147, 551
- methotrimeprazine 305
- methoxsalen 142
- methoxynaphthylacetic acid 141
- 8-methoxy psoralen 142
- 7-methoxytacrine 420
- methsuximide 178
- 4-(methylamino)antipyrine 203
- methylaminorex 280
- methylanilines 341
- L-N-methylarginine 129, 157
- methyl benzoate 59
- methyl dopa 159
- methylene blue 62

- 3,4-methylenedioxyamphetamine 275
- methylergometrine 295
- methylergonovine 295
- (R)- α -methylhistamine 379
- methylnaltrexone 334
- methylphenidate 251
- methylprednisolone 478
- N-methylpyridinium 397
- 3-methyl-2-thiohydantoin 182
- methypylon 199
- methysergide 295
- metamide 101
- metipranolol 324
- metoclopramide 217
- metocurine 289
- metolazone 138, 453
- metopimazine 168, 308
- metoprolol 39, 93, 325
- metopyrone 401
- metrifonate 74
- metronidazole 17, 378, 383
- metryrapone 401
- mevalonate 548
- mevastatin (compactin) 548
- mevinolin (lovastatin) 548, 549
- mexazolam 473
- mexiletine 259, 342
- mezlocillin 527
- MGCD-0103 367
- mianserin 317, 394
- mibefradil 279
- micalfungin 359
- Michael acceptors 19, 155
- miconazole 17, 387, 388
- microtubule-stabilizing agents 564
- midazolam 471
- midodrine 167, 285, 286
- Mietzsch, Fritz 62, 450
- mifentidine 380
- mifepristone 490
- miglitol 72, 77
- miglustat 78
- migraine 291
- migraine prophylaxis 255
- milnacipran 237
- milrinone 406
- minaprine 406
- mineralocorticoids, *see* corticosteroids, steroids
- minocycline 495
- minoxidil 70, 407
- miotics (contract pupil) 190, 380
- mirtazapine 317, 394
- misonidazole 383
- misoprostol 538, 541
- mitiglinide 150
- mitomycin C 300
- mitotane 56
- mitoxantrone 496
- mivacurium 289
- mizolastine 258
- mizoribine 428
- MK-0974 354
- MK-473 155
- MKC-1 375
- MMI-270 353
- moclobemide 216
- modafinil 146, 157, 168
- moexipril 338
- mofarotene 262
- mofebutazone 180
- mofegiline 43
- molecular modeling 9, 10
- molecular weight 13–16
- molluscicides 94
- molsidomine 161
- mometasone 479
- monoamine oxidase (MAO) 267, 268
- monomethyl fumarate 149
- montelukast 422
- moprolol 322
- morclofone 261
- mordant yellow 512
- morizine 17, 307
- morocromen 192, 278
- morphine 269, 329, 332
- morpholine, pK_a 110
- mosapramine 240, 314
- mosapride 218
- motesanib 366
- motility, gastrointestinal, *see* gastroprokinetics
- motion sickness 222, 226
- moxalactam 533
- moxifloxacin 519
- moxonidine 123, 127
- MS-275 366
- mucolytics 98, 116, 162
- multidrug resistance gene 16
- multiple sclerosis 169, 398, 461
- muraglitazar 152, 188
- muscarinic acetylcholine M_1 antagonists 313
- muscarinic acetylcholine M_3 antagonists 238
- muscarinic agonists 264
- muscarinic antagonists 118, 222, 237

muscle relaxants
 – skeletal 75, 115, 126, 160, 177, 183, 189,
 190, 200, 234, 242, 259, 264, 300, 311,
 410, 419, 468
 – smooth, see anticholinergics,
 bronchodilators, vasodilators
 muscular dystrophy 508
 mushroom poisons 347
 mustards 52, 54–56
 muzolimine 131, 181, 379
 myalex 504
 mycophenolic acid 153
 mydriatics (enlarge pupil) 282, 299
 myoson 232

n

nabilone 86
 nabumetone 139, 141
 nadolol 323
 nafamostat 127, 164
 nafarelin 358
 nafcillin 48, 526
 nafronyl 48, 221
 naftazone 182, 192
 naftidrofuryl 221
 naftopidil 248, 327
 nalbuphine 333
 nalidixic acid 514, 516
 nalmefene 333
 naloxone 333
 naltrexone 333
 naphazoline 48
 naphthalene 47
 2-naphthylamine 133
 naphthyl groups 48
 1-naphthyl *N*-methylcarbamate 48
 1-naphthylthiourea 48
 naphthyridines 415, 416
 naproxen 499
 napsagatran 363
 naratriptan 258, 293
 narcotic antagonists 119, 239, 330, 331, 333
 narcotics, see analgesics
 naronapride 220
 nasal decongestants 124, 126, 280, 282
 nasal dosing, peptides 347
 nateglinide 38, 163
 National Cancer Institute 415, 554
 natriuresis enhancers 442
 nausea, see antiemetics, emetics
 naveglitazar 151
 navitoclax 365
 nebicapone 85
 neбивол 327
 nedocromil 509, 515
 nefazodone 17, 247
 nefiracetam 174, 344
 nefopam 235
 negamycin 161, 355
 nelarabine 438
 nelfinavir 351
 nematodes, see anthelmintics
 nemonapride 219
 nemonoxacin 519
 neopentylamine, pK_a 110
 neoplastic diseases, see antineoplastics
 neostigmine 118, 187, 190
 nepafenac 168, 500
 neramexane 111, 115
 neratinib 373
 netilmicin 81
 netobimin 61, 385
 neuraminidase inhibitors 122, 129, 160
 neuritis 189
 neurokinin NK_1 antagonists 265, 266
 neurokinin NK_3 antagonists 418
 neuroleptics, see antipsychotics
 neuromuscular blocking agents 118, 119,
 289, 290, 300, 490, 491
 neuroprotectants 95, 211, 246, 249, 259, 283,
 385
 nevirapine 17, 317
 nexopamil 277
 NF- κ B activation inhibitors 149
 NHE-1 130
 niacin 398, 505, 548
 niaprazine 248
 nicainoprol 323
 nicardipine 449
 niclosamide 86
 nicorandil 66, 401
 nicotinamide 398, 399
 nicotine 393, 402
 nicotine addiction 272
 nicotinic acetylcholine agonists 118, 259,
 401
 nicotinic acid 398
 nicotinic agonists 118, 272
 nicotinic receptors 118
N-nicotinoyl glycine 398
 nicoumalone 143
 nifedipine 60, 447
 nifekalant 435
 niflumic acid 394, 507
 nifurtimox 183
 nikethamide 399
 nilotinib 368
 nilutamide 60, 179

- nilvadipine 447
 - nimesulide 455
 - nimetazepam 468
 - nimodipine 447
 - nimorazole 383
 - nimustine 69
 - nipradilol 323
 - niridazole 183
 - nisoldipine 447
 - nitazoxanide 183
 - nitisinone 142
 - nitrates 66
 - nitrazepam 60, 468
 - nitrendipine 60, 447
 - nitric oxide 66
 - nitric oxide synthase inhibitors 128, 129, 157
 - nitriles 184
 - nitrites 66
 - nitro compounds 59
 - nitroarenes 59
 - nitrobenzene 59
 - nitrofurans 61, 183
 - nitrofurantoin 60, 183
 - nitrofurazone 183
 - nitrogen mustards 52, 54–56
 - nitroglycerin 66, 76
 - nitroimidazoles 378
 - nitroso compounds 68
 - nitrosoarenes 60, 135
 - nitrosoureas 54, 68
 - nitrothiazoles 183
 - nitrous oxide 161
 - nizatidine 132
 - NK, see neurokinin
 - NK-611 90
 - NMDA antagonists 115, 211, 270, 281, 283, 427, 501
 - noberasine 258
 - nocloprost 541
 - notatrexed 418
 - nolomirole 275
 - nomifensine 136, 230
 - nonsedating histamine H₁ antagonists 256–258
 - nonsense mutation suppressors 508
 - nonsteroidal antiandrogens 170, 179
 - nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs, see NSAIDs
 - nootropics
 - 3-(aryloxy)propylamines 246, 247, 260, 280
 - benzylamines 190
 - five-membered lactams 173–175
 - nicotine analogs 259, 264, 401
 - other pyridines 403, 420
 - quinones 141
 - tryptamine derivatives 297, 298
 - noradrenaline 267
 - noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors 228, 270, 276
 - noradrenaline/dopamine reuptake inhibitors 229
 - norbutriptyline 313
 - norchlorcyclizine 252
 - norcyclizine 252
 - nordazepam 60, 169, 394, 467, 469, 472
 - norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors 228, 270, 276
 - norethindrone 484
 - norethisterone 484
 - norfenefrine 281
 - norfloxacin 514, 517
 - norgestimate 483
 - normeperidine 168
 - nornicotine 402
 - norpropoxyphene 229
 - nortilidine 330
 - nortriptyline 312
 - norzimeldine 231
 - noscapine 269, 288
 - NSAIDs
 - arylacetic acids 497–506
 - arylpropionic acids 303, 497–503
 - benzoic acids 497, 498, 506, 507
 - other 75, 150, 224, 236, 403, 419, 455, 456
 - phenols 85
 - pyrazolones 180, 181
 - salicylates 497, 498, 511–513
 - thiazinecarboxamides 459, 460
 - NTBC 142
 - nucleoside analogs 428–445
 - nucleoside phosphorylase inhibitors 439
 - nufenoxole 237
 - NXL-104 182, 207
- o**
- obatoclax 375
 - obesity 152, 171; see also anorexics
 - obidoxime 399
 - ocinaplon 370
 - octofene 87
 - octopamine 282
 - octreotide 360
 - odanacatib 353
 - ofloxacin 514, 518
 - oglemilast 400
 - olanzapine 19, 318
 - olaparib 372, 411

- olcegepant 354
 - olefins 40–44
 - oligoamides 347, 365
 - oligoarylamines 365
 - oligosaccharides 78–81
 - olmesartan medoxomil 186, 545
 - olopatadine 145, 312
 - olpadronic acid 211
 - olsalazine 62, 512
 - omapatrilate 99, 339
 - omecamtiv mecarbil 372
 - omeprazole 10, 17, 104, 396, 409
 - oncogenes, see carcinogens
 - oncolytics, see antineoplastics
 - ondansetron 381
 - OPC-6535 508
 - opiate agonists 239, 241, 243, 274, 329–334
 - opiate antagonists 119, 239, 330, 331, 333
 - opiates 329–334
 - opioid analgesics, see analgesics
 - opipramol 311
 - opium 269
 - optimization of leads 13, 20
 - oral bioavailability 6, 14
 - orbofiban 362
 - orcioprenaline 83, 284
 - orexin antagonists 288
 - organomercurials 451
 - orlistat 152
 - ormeloxifen 262
 - ornidazole 51, 383
 - orotic acid 435
 - orphenadrine 234
 - ortataxel 556
 - orthocaine new 215
 - oseltamivir 160, 164
 - osmotic agents 94
 - osmotic diuretics 76, 77, 193
 - osmotic laxatives 77, 78
 - ospemifene 263
 - ostarine 170
 - osteoporosis 210, 260–263
 - otamixaban 363
 - overactive bladder 230, 281
 - oxacillin 528
 - oxaliplatin 158
 - oxametacine 147, 502
 - oxamniquine 287
 - oxantel 124
 - oxantrazole 496
 - oxaprozin 144, 150
 - oxatamide 254
 - oxazepam 169, 467, 472
 - oxazidione 142
 - oxazolam 473
 - oxcarbazepine 316
 - oxedrine 35, 282
 - oxidative stress inducers 194
 - N-oxides 70
 - oximes 138
 - oxiracetam 72, 175
 - oxiranes 96
 - oxisuran 105, 403
 - oxitriptan 159, 292
 - oxitropium 222
 - oxmetidine 382
 - oxolinic acid 515
 - oxprenolol 322
 - oxybate sodium 149
 - oxybutynin 165, 221, 233
 - oxycodone 333
 - oxymetazoline 124
 - oxyphenbutazone 180
 - oxypurinol 439
 - oxytetracycline 494
 - oxytocics 295
 - ozagrel 380
 - ozolinon 161
- p**
- PA-824 384
 - paclitaxel 554, 555
 - pafenolol 326
 - Paget's disease 210
 - pain suppression, see analgesics, NSAIDs
 - paliperidone 244
 - palonosetron 219
 - pamidronic acid 211
 - pancopride 219
 - pancuronium 490
 - panipenem 525
 - panobinostat 156, 294
 - pantoprazole 410
 - Papaver somniferum* 269
 - papaverine 269, 287
 - paracetamol (acetaminophen) 84, 92
 - metabolism 82
 - paraldehyde 94
 - parallel synthesis 10
 - paraquat 397
 - parasitic infections, see anthelmintics, antiprotozoals
 - parasympathomimetics, see cholinergics
 - parecoxib 456
 - parenteral dosing (injection) of drugs 15–17
 - paricalcitol 489
 - Parkinson's disease, see antiparkinsonians
 - paromomycin 81

- paroxetine 10, 17, 251
- PARP inhibitors 300, 372
- pazinaclone 426
- pazopanib 369, 406
- pazufloxacin 519
- PDE, see phosphodiesterase
- pefloxacan 514, 518
- PEG (poly(ethylene glycol)) 92, 348
- peldesine 439
- Pelletier, Pierre Joseph 413
- pemetrexed 553
- pemirolast 515
- pemoline 128
- P-glycoprotein (P-gp) 13, 16
- P-glycoprotein inhibitors 254, 290, 367
- L-penbutolol 47, 320, 321
- penclomedine 402
- penciclovir 443
- penethamate 527
- penfluridol 241
- penicillamine 99, 159, 339
- penicillin 522
- penicillin F 522
- penicillin G 522, 527
- penicillin V 522, 527
- penicillinase inhibitors 182
- pentachlorophenol 84
- pentamidine 120, 127
- pentanols, solubility 36
- pentazocine 274
- 2-pentenylpenicillin 522
- pentobarbital 41, 198, 202
- pentopril 338
- pentostatin 438
- pentoxifylline 441
- pentoxyverine 221
- peptic ulcers, see antiulceratives
- peptidases 166
- peptide deformylase inhibitors 356
- peptides 166, 347, 358–360
- peptidomimetics 347–361
- peramivir 129
- perampanel 404
- perazine 306
- PERC 57
- pergolide 294
- perhexiline 230
- pericyazine 308
- perindopril 337
- peristaltic stimulants, see gastroprokinetics
- peroxides 97
- perphenazine 109, 308
- perzinfotel 211
- pethidine 251
- PGE₁ 539
- PGE₂ 538
- PGG₂ 538
- P-gp 13, 16
- pharmacokinetics–structure relationship 5
- phases of clinical development 5
- phenacemide 195
- phenacetin 85, 91
- phenanthrene 47
- phenazone 4, 173, 181
- phenazopyridine 62, 405
- phencyclidine 37, 116, 264
- phendimetrazine 280
- phenelzine 137
- phenethicillin 527
- phenethylamines 267–290
- pheneturide 193, 195
- phenformin 124, 131
- pheniramine 230
- phenmetrazine 280
- phenobarbital 17, 46, 197
- phenol 36, 82, 84
- phenols 82
 - prodrugs 84, 164, 186
- phenothiazine 303
- phenothiazines 301–309
- phenoxybenzamine 52
- phenoxymethylpenicillin 522, 527
- phenprobamate 190
- phenprocoumon 142
- phensuximide 178
- phentermine 271
- phentolamine 120, 125, 320
- phenylacetic acid 149
- N-phenylacetylglutamine 149
- phenylbutazone 4, 46, 180
- 4-phenylbutyric acid 149
- phenylephrine 282
- phenylethylamines 267
- phenyl groups, unsubstituted 46
- phenylketonuria 408
- phenylpiracetam 175
- phenylpropanolamine 280
- phenytoin 17, 179, 213
- pheochromocytomas 51
- phocomelia 189
- pholcodine 108, 332
- pholedrine 273
- phosphates 213
- phosphodiesterase III inhibitors 247, 406
- phosphodiesterase IV inhibitors 170, 195, 287, 400, 444, 508
- phosphodiesterase V inhibitors 299, 442, 443

- phosphonates 209
- phosphonic acids 209
- phosphoric acid derivatives 213
- photosensitizers 90, 142, 564, 565
- phototoxicity 18, 90
- phthalimide, pK_a 172
- physostigmine 190
- phytoestrogens 88
- picoprazole 396
- picosulfate 207
- picotamide 366
- Pictet–Spengler reaction 269
- picumast 247
- pidotimod 174
- pilocarpine 378, 380
- pilsicainide 344
- pimavanserin 257
- pimecrolimus 559
- pimobendan 411
- pimonidazole 383
- pimozide 240
- pinacidil 400
- pinaverium 117
- pinazepam 169, 470
- pindolol 323
- pioglitazone 178
- pipamperone 242
- pipecurium 118, 491
- pipecuronium 491
- pipemidic acid 514, 518
- piperacillin 527
- piperazine 109, 250
- piperazines 109, 227–266
- piperidine, pK_a 110
- piperidines 227–266
- piperoxan 320
- pipotiazine 308
- piracetam 173, 174
- pirazolac 504
- pirbuterol 285
- pirenzepine 313
- piretanide 455, 508
- pirfenidone 406
- piribedil 250
- piritramide 239
- piritrexim 408
- pirindole 293
- pirmagrel 149
- pirmenol 71, 233
- piroxicam 186, 396, 460
- piroximone 182, 400
- pirozantrone 496
- pirprofen 499
- pitavastatin 550
- pivampicillin 526
- pixantrone 496
- pizotifen 255, 315
- pizotyline 255, 315
- plasma clearance 7
- plasma half-life 6, 15
- plasma protein binding 6
- Plasmodium falciparum* 413
- platelet aggregation inhibitors 265, 366, 439, 539, 540
- platelet glycoprotein IIb/IIIa blockers 265, 361, 362
- platinum-containing drugs 158
- PLD-118 160
- pleconaril 385
- plerixafor 565
- plinabulin 381
- polar surface area 14, 16
- olidocanol 77
- poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase inhibitors 386
- polycyclic hydrocarbons 47
- poly(ethylene glycol) 92, 348
- polyols 71–81
- polythiazide 453
- pomalidomide 196
- ponalrestat 502
- pores, hydrophilic 14, 119
- posaconazole 391
- potassium channel blockers 150, 263, 398, 435, 462, 463
- potassium channel openers 174, 200, 400, 407
- potency of drugs 8, 18
- Poulenc Frères 215
- pozanicline 259
- PPAR- γ agonists 151, 152, 178, 179
- practolol 47, 321, 324
- pradefovir 443
- pralatrexate 552
- pralidoxime 118, 398
- pramiconazole 392
- pramipexole 115, 274
- pramiracetam 174
- pramiverine 257
- pranlukast 509
- pranoprofen 501
- prasugrel 265
- pravastatin 549
- prazepam 93, 169, 469
- praziquantel 288
- prazosin 415, 425
- preclamol 274
- preclinical development 5
- prednisolone 479

- prednisone 17, 479
 pregabalin 161
 pregnanolone 483
 preladenant 245
 premazepam 475
 prenalterol 324
 prenylamine 229, 273
 pridinol 71, 232
 prilocaine 343
 prils 335–340
 primaquine 414, 421
 primidone 197
 prinomastat 371
 probenecid 17, 458, 507
 probucol 87
 procainamide 134, 215, 216
 procaine 215
 procarbazine 117, 137
 procaterol 283
 prochlorperazine 109, 307
 procyclidine 71, 233
 prodrugs
 – amides as 114, 167
 – of alcohols 164, 186, 213, 214
 – of amides 214
 – of amines 112–114, 167, 187
 – of carboxylic acids 167, 186
 – of ketones 140
 – of phenols 84, 164, 186
 – of thiols 213
 progabide 149
 progesterone 477, 482
 progesterone receptor modulators 489
 progestins 477
 progestogens 482–488
 proglumide 150
 proguanil 131
 prokinetic drugs, see gastroprokinetics
 prolactin 274
 prolactin inhibitors 294–296
 promazine 101, 301, 304, 393
 promethazine 4, 301, 303
 prontosil 62, 450
 propafenone 325
 propantheline 221
 propargylamine, pK_a 110
 propentophylline 441
 propericiazine 308
 propiomazine 303
 propiram 227, 401
 propiverine 220
 propofol 82, 84
 propoxyphene 228
 propranolol 47, 320, 321, 322
 propylamine, pK_a 110
 propylbenzene 91
 2-propyl-2-pentenoic acid 148
 propylthiouracil 201, 434
 propyphenazone 181
 proquazone 419
 prostacyclins 538
 prostaglandin analogs 538–542
 prostaglandin antagonists 156, 505
 prostaglandin E_1 (PGE_1) 539
 prostaglandins 538
 prostatic hyperplasia 278, 279, 416
 proteases 166
 proteasome inhibitors 352
 protein binding 6
 protein kinase C inhibitors 375
 prothipendyl 304, 393
 protionamide 400
 protizinic acid 303
 proton pump inhibitors 104, 370, 396, 409, 410
 protozoals, see antiprotozoals
 protriptyline 312
 proxiphylline 441
 PRT 054021 367
 prucalopride 134, 220
 prulifloxacin 114, 520
 pruritus (itching), see antipruritics
 pseudohypericin 90
 psoralens, see 8-methoxypsoralen
 psoriasis 489, 509, 551
 PT-523 552
 pteridines 415, 416
 pulmonary hypertension 124, 369, 370, 458
 purine derivatives 435–439, 443–445
 pyrantel 124
 pyrazinamide 399
 pyrazofurin 429
 pyrazolone antipyretics 172
 pyrexia, see antiinflammatories
 pyridine 395, 397
 pyridine *N*-oxides 70
 pyridines 393–410
 pyridinol carbamate 399
 pyridostigmine 399
 pyrilamine 225, 227
 pyrimethamine 405
 pyrimidine *N*-oxides 70
 pyrimidines 25, 27, 393
 1-(2-pyrimidinyl)piperazine 250
 pyritinol 403
 pyronaridine 417

q

quaternary ammonium salts 118
 quazepam 201, 470
 quercetin 88
 quetiapine 19, 319
 quinacrine 420
 quinagolide 208, 274
 quinapril 338
 quinazoline 416
 quinazoline N-oxides 466
 quinazolines 415
 quinazolones 418, 419
 quinethazone 452
 quinidine 17, 42, 421
 quinine 4, 172, 413, 421
 quinoline 416
 quinolines 24, 412–425
 quinolonecarboxylic acids 4, 514–521
 quinupramine 111, 314
 quinupristin 563

r

R406 366
 R-115777 380
 R-115866 391
 R-126638 392
 R-406 366
 rabeprazole 409
 raclopride 218
 radioactive tracing agents 53
 radiosensitizers 383, 564, 565
 ragaglitazar 152
 raloxifene 260
 raltegravir 369
 raltitrexed 553
 ramatroban 156, 293
 rambazole 391
 ramelteon 275
 ramipril 337
 ramosetron 381
 ranitidine 102, 132
 ranolazine 327, 345
 rapacuronium 490
 rapamycin 557, 558
 rasagiline 113, 271
 rate of elimination 7
 ravuconazole 389
 razaxaban 370
 reactive compounds, toxicity 17
 rebamipide 163
 reboxetine 228, 322
 recainam 345
 5 α -reductase inhibitors 487
 reflux esophagitis, see antiulceratives

regadenoson 437
 remifentanyl 164, 243
 remikiren 349, 357
 remoxipride 218
 renin 335
 renin inhibitors 336, 357
 renzapride 219
 repaglinide 510
 repartitioning agents 286
 repinotan 249
 repirinast 510
 Research Triangle Institute 415
 reserpine 165, 299
 resistance, antibiotic 523
 respiratory stimulants 234, 253, 263, 399
 retigabine 136, 394, 404
 retinoic acid agonists 152, 153, 509
 retinoic acid metabolism blocking agents 391
 revaprazan 370, 406
 reverse transcriptase inhibitors 294, 317
 rhein 89
 rheumatoid arthritis 98, 158, 159, 169, 352, 366
 rhizoxin 564
 Rhone-Poulenc 301
 ribavirin 429
 ribostamycin 80
 ridogrel 149
 rifabutin 562
 rifampin 17, 563
 rifapentine 17
 rifaximin 563
 rilamazafone 167
 rilmenidine 125
 rilpivirine 405
 riluzole 385
 rimantadine 37, 115
 rimiterol 284
 rimonabant 234
 riociguat 370, 407
 risedronic acid 212
 risperidone 244
 ritalinic acid 251
 ritanserine 256
 ritipenem 525
 ritodrine 282
 ritonavir 17, 351
 rivaroxaban 176
 rivastigmine 188, 190, 273
 rivoglitazone 179
 rizatriptan 292
 RNA polymerase inhibitors 562
 Ro 03-8799 383

Ro 31-1118 325
 Ro 31-7453 375
 Ro 48-6791 471
 Ro 48-8684 471
 rocuronium 491
 rodenticides 48, 299
 rofecoxib 456
 roflumilast 170, 396, 400
 rolapitant 111, 265
 rolipram 175, 275
 rolitetracycline 494
 romidepsin 360
 ropinirole 275
 ropivacaine 344
 roquinimex 461
 roscovitine 444
 rosiglitazone 178
 rosoxacin 515
 Ross, Warren 415
 rosuvastatin 550
 rotigotine 274
 roxatidine 264
 roxifiban 120, 188, 362
 roxithromycin 560
 RPR 109881A 555
 RSR-13 154
 rubitecan 423
 ruboxistaurin 375
 rufinamide 390
 rifloxacin 102, 518
 rule of five 13
 Runge, Friedlieb 82
 rupatadine 114, 255, 316

S

S-8307 543, 544
 S-8308 544
 sabeluzole 246, 327
 safinamide 117, 207
 saffrole 42
 sagopilone 564
 salbutamol 72, 284
 salicin 497
 salicylamide 168, 512
 salicylamide O-acetic acid 512
 salicylates 497, 498, 511–513
 salicylic acid 497, 498, 511
 salmeterol 285
 salsolinol 287
 salt formation, advantages 107
 sapacitabine 432
 sapropterin 408
 saquinavir 351
 saracatinib 374
 saralasin 335, 543
 sarizotan 401
 sartans 543–547
 satavaptan 262
 satraplatin 158
 saxagliptin 345
 Saxl, Paul 451
 Schering 215
 schizophrenia 418
 Schmiedeberg, Oswald 188
 scopolamine 96, 222
 secnidazole 60, 73, 383
 secobarbital 41, 198
 γ -secretase inhibitors 353, 355
 sedatives, see hypnotics
 seizures, see antiepileptics
 P-selectin inhibitors 24
 selegiline 271
 seletracetam 43, 175
 selodenoson 438
 selumetinib 372
 semagacestat 355
 sematilide 217
 senicapoc 151
 seratrodast 150
 sergliflozin etabonate 186
 serine protease inhibitors 127
 serotonin 292
 serotonin antagonists 244, 245, 255, 296
 serotonin 5-HT₁ agonists 219, 248
 serotonin 5-HT_{1,2C} agonists 250
 serotonin 5-HT_{1A} agonists 23, 219, 245, 248, 249
 serotonin 5-HT_{1A} antagonists 245, 257
 serotonin 5-HT_{1A,B,D,F} agonists 258
 serotonin 5-HT_{1B,1D} agonists 291–293
 serotonin 5-HT₂ antagonists 240, 256, 277
 serotonin 5-HT_{2A} agonists 275
 serotonin 5-HT_{2A} antagonists 236, 250
 serotonin 5-HT_{2A,2C} agonists 295
 serotonin 5-HT_{2A,2C} antagonists 234
 serotonin 5-HT_{2C} agonists 272
 serotonin 5-HT₃ antagonists 219, 223, 381
 serotonin 5-HT₄ agonists 130, 218–220
 serotonin receptors 225
 serotonin reuptake inhibitors 228, 234, 236, 237, 248, 259, 270, 276
 serotonin transporter inhibitors 228
 sertaconazole 388
 sertindole 246
 sertraline 17, 230
 Sheehan, John C. 522
 sibrafiban 121, 362
 sibutramine 112, 272

- sickle cell disease 151, 509
- side-effects 16–20
- silanes 264, 509
- sildenafil 442
- silodosin 279
- silperisone 264
- simendan 411
- simvastatin 549
- sirolimus 558
- sitafloxacin 520
- sitagliptin 23, 273, 346
- sitaxentan 458
- skin rashes 18
- sleep disorders, see hypnotics
- small molecule drugs, future 9
- SmithKline Beecham 415
- SMO antagonists 366
- smoke 17
- SN-38 424
- SNS-032 258
- sodium channel blockers 130, 216, 217, 220, 224, 405, 408
- sodium/proton exchange inhibitors (NHE-1) 130, 131
- solabegron 281
- solifenacin 230
- solubility
 - alkanols 36
 - drugs 5, 10, 13, 14
 - ethers 91
- somatostatin analogs 360
- sorafenib 371, 396
- sorbinil 178
- sorbitol 71, 77
- sorivudine 434
- sotalol 83, 268, 286
- sparfloxacin 144, 520
- spectinomycin 79
- spemicides 77
- spiramycin 562
- spirapril 337
- spironolactone 487
- splenda (sucralose) 51, 79
- squalene 548
- SR 121463 262
- SR-4554 384
- stains, see dyes
- statins 548–550
- stavudine 433
- Sternbach, Leo 466
- steroids 477–491
- stibogluconate 158
- stimulants, see CNS stimulants
- stiripentol 74
- St. John's wort 16, 90
- stomach 14
- Streptomyces* 492
- streptomycin 122, 129
- streptozotocin 69
- strychnine 299
- succinimides 177, 178
- sucralose 51, 79
- sudoxicam 460
- sufentanyl 243
- sulbactam 524
- sulbenicillin 204, 528
- sulfadiazine 458
- sulfadoxine 134, 459
- sulfamethoxazole 17, 459
- sulfamic acids 207
- sulfamidochrysoidine 62
- sulfamoxole 459
- sulfanilamide 62
- sulfapyridine 459, 512
- sulfasalazine 62, 512
- sulfates 207
- sulfinpyrazone 180
- sulfisoxazole 459
- sulfluramid 457
- sulfonal 193
- sulfonamides 21, 450, 452–460; see also
 - sulfonylureas
- sulfonates 206
- sulfones 26, 101, 106
- sulfonic acids 203–205
- sulfonic esters 206
- sulfonylureas 462–465
- sulfoxides 101, 104, 396, 397
- sulfoxone 87
- sulfur mustard 54
- sulindac 105, 503
- sulotroban 156
- sulpiride 217
- sulprostone 147, 541
- sulthiame 457
- sultopride 218
- siltosilic acid 205, 206, 513
- sumatriptan 291, 292
- sunitinib 113, 217
- suprofen 500
- surface, see topical
- surgery, antiseptic 82
- suriclone 426
- sweeteners, artificial 77, 79, 115, 205, 434
- sympathomimetics, see adrenergic agonists
- synephrine 267, 282
- syphilis 451

t

- T₄, thyroxine 159
 tabimorelin 356
 TAC-101 509
 tachyarrhythmias, see antiarrhythmics
 tacrine 414, 420
 tacrolimus 557, 559
 tadalafil 299
 tafenoquine 421
 TAK-375 275
 TAK-442 170
 Takeda 543
 talabostat 355
 talampanel 476
 talampicillin 526
 talbutal 198
 talinolol 325
 talnetant 418
 talsaclidine 44, 264
 talibulin 356
 tamibarotene 509
 tamoxifen 263
 tamsulosin 279
 tandospirone 249
 tanomastat 505
 tapentadol 274
 taranabant 171, 396
 tariquidar 367
 TAS-106 431
 tasosartan 546, 547
 tauromustine 69
 taxanes 554–556
 taxol 10, 554, 555
 tazartene 509
 tazifylline 442
 tazobactam 524
 TBC-3711 369
 TBR-652 382
 tebufelone 85
 tecadenoson 438
 tecans 415, 423, 424
 tecarfarin 143
 tedisamil 263
 tegafur 434
 tegaserod 122, 130
 telaprevir 351
 telbivudine 433
 telcagepant 192, 354
 telithromycin 561
 telmisartan 546
 temafloxacin 517
 temazepam 138, 472
 temelastine 402
 temocapril 102, 338
 temocillin 529
 temoporfin 564
 temozolomide 65, 382
 temsirolimus 558
 tenatoprazole 409
 tenidap 139, 459
 teniposide 90
 tenofovir disoproxil 210, 444
 tenoxicam 459
 tepa 55
 tepoxalin 504
 teprenone 141
 teprotide 335
 teratogenics 189
 terazosin 426
 terbinafine 48, 116, 271
 terbogrel 149
 terbutaline 3, 284
 terfenadine 226, 256
 terguride 294
 teriflunomide 169
 terodiline 229
tert-alkylamine dealkylation 111
 tertatolol 320, 323
 tertiary alcohols 71, 73
 terutroban 162
 tesaglitazar 152, 206
 tesofensine 111, 112, 251
 testosterone 477, 486
 tetomilast 508
 tetrabenazine 287
 tetrachlorodioxin 52
 tetrachloroethylene 57
 tetracycline 493
 tetracyclines 492–495
 tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) 86, 146
 tetrahydrofolic acid 552
 tetrahydrofuran 91, 100
 tetrahydroisoquinolines 269, 287–290
 tetrahydropyran 100
 tetrahydrothiophene 100
 tetrazepam 468
 tetrazoles 146
 tezosentan 509
 thalidomide 172, 189, 195
 thalline 4, 173
 tham 115
 THC 86, 146
 thebaine 269
 theobromine 440, 451
 theophylline 440
 therapeutic index 5
 THF 91, 100
 thiabendazole 378, 386

- thiamazole 182, 379
- thiamphenicol 78
- thiazinamium 303
- thiazolidinediones 178, 179
- thiethylperazine 307
- thioacetamide 201
- thioamides 194
- thiocarbonyl compounds 201
- thioethers 100
- thioguanine 201, 439
- thiols 98
- prodrugs 213, 214
- thionylan 227
- thiopental 199, 202
- thiophene S-oxides 102, 103
- thioridazine 17, 306
- thiotepa 55
- thiothixene 307
- thioureas 194
- thrombin inhibitors 349, 354, 363, 364; see also antithrombotics
- thrombolytic drugs, see antithrombotics
- thromboxane antagonists 149, 150, 156, 542
- thromboxane synthase inhibitors 149, 380, 510
- thromboxanes 538
- thymidylate synthase inhibitors 418
- thyroxine, T₄ 159
- tiagabine 161, 240
- tiamenidine 127
- tianeptine 146, 313
- tiapride 217
- tiaprofenic acid 503
- tiaramide 224
- tiazofurin 429
- tibolone 484
- ticagrelor 439
- ticarcillin 529
- ticlopidine 17, 265
- ticrynafen 102, 103, 155
- tienilic acid 155
- tigecycline 495
- tilidine 43, 330
- tiludronic acid 212
- timolol 326
- timoprazole 396
- tinidazole 106, 382
- tinofedrine 232
- tiopronin 99, 162, 339
- tiotropium 96, 222
- tipifarnib 380
- tipranavir 143
- tiracizine 187, 313
- tirapazamine 70, 419
- tirilazad 490
- tirofiban 361
- tiopramide 261
- tizanidine 123, 126
- tizoxanide 183
- TMC-207 417
- tobacco alkaloids 402
- tobramycin 80
- tocainide 343
- tocolytics (inhibitors of uterine motility) 282, 283, 286
- D- α -tocopherol 86
- tofisopam 476
- tolamolol 327
- tolazamide 463
- tolazoline 124, 320
- tolbutamide 52, 462
- tolcapone 85
- tolfenamic acid 506
- tolmetin 503
- toloxatone 176
- tolperisone 242
- tolrestat 163
- tolterodine 232
- toluene 47
- o-toluidine 133, 341, 343
- tolvaptan 376
- tomopenem 525
- tomudex 553
- topical anesthetics, see local anesthetics
- topical antifungals, see antifungals
- topical disinfectants 82, 87, 118
- topiramate 95, 207
- topixantrone 496
- topoisomerase I inhibitors 299, 415, 423, 424
- topoisomerase II inhibitors 416, 496
- topotecan 415, 424
- torasemide 463
- torcetrapib 191
- toremifene 263
- torsades de pointes 17
- torsemide 463
- tosedostat 156, 353
- tosufloxacin 516
- toxicity of drugs 17
- TPA-023 391
- trabectedin 288
- tramadol 330
- tramiprosate 204
- trandolapril 337
- tranexamic acid 160
- tranezamic acid 160
- tranilast 507

- tranquilizers, see antipsychotics, hypnotics
 transplant rejection 557
 tranlycypromine 270
 trapidil 440
 travoprost 147, 540
 traxoprodil 283
 trazodone 247
 trefentanil 243
 tremor, see antidyskinetics, antiparkinsonians
 treprostinil 540
 tretinoin (all-*trans*-retinoic acid, vitamin A acid) 153
 triamcinolone 478
 triamcinolone acetonide 479
 1,2,4-triaminobenzene 62
 triamterene 408
 triazenes 64
 triazolam 470
 triazoles 387–392
 trichlormethiazide 453
 trichloroacetaldehyde 138
 trichloroacetic acid 138, 148
 1,2,4-trichlorobenzene 56
 trichloroethanol 74, 138
 triclazepam 385
 triclopyr 155, 402
 tricyclic antidepressants, see antidepressants
 triethylamine, pK_a 110
 trifluoperazine 307
 trifluoroacetamides 166
 trifluoromethyl groups 51
 trifluorothymidine 433
 triflupromazine 305
 trifluridine 433
 triflusal 511, 512
 trigonelline 398
 trihexyphenidyl 233
 triiodobenzoic acid 75
 trimazosin 73, 426
 trimebutine 220
 trimecaine 343
 trimetopazine 305
 trimetazidine 252
 trimethadione 177
 trimethobenzamide 260
 trimethoprim 404
 trimetrexate 136, 409
 trimipramine 314
 tripamide 453
 tripeleppamine 225, 227
 triprolidine 145, 231
 trocade 352
 troglitazone 17, 179
 tromboopoietin agonists 153
 tropane alkaloids 222–224
 tropisetron 223
 trospectomycin 79
 trovafloxacin 167, 516
 troxacitabine 138, 430
 tryptamine 107
 tuberculostatics 201, 399, 400, 417; see also
 antibacterials
 D-tubocurarine 289
 tubular secretion 15
 tubulin ligands 291
 tubulin polymerization inhibitors 356, 381
 tucareol 138, 509
 tulobuterol 281
 TXA₂ 538
 tybamate 189
 tyramine 107, 267
 tyrosine kinase inhibitors, see antineoplastics
 tyrosinemia 142
- u**
- U-101387 246
 UCB 173
 udenafil 443
 UK-240455 427
 ulcers, gastric
 – drugs for treatment, see antiulceratives
 – NSAID-associated 497, 498
 ulifloxacin 114, 520
 ulipristal acetate 136, 490
 undesirable effects of drugs (adverse drug reactions) 17–20
 unoprostone isopropyl 541
 unsaturated groups (alkenes) 40–44
 UR-8880 455
 uracilacetic acid 53, 433
 urapidil 248, 435
 urea cycle disorders 149
 urea 193
 ureas 28, 29, 192–199
 ureides 146
 urethanes (carbamates) 187–191
 uricosurics (enhancers of uric acid excretion)
 88, 155, 180, 435, 458
 urinary acidifiers 116, 159
 urinary incontinence 220, 232, 238
 urogenital atrophy 263
- v**
- V-11294A 444
 vadimezan 505
 valacyclovir 437
 valdecoxib 456

- valium 468
 - valnoctamide 148
 - valproic acid 144, 148
 - N-valproylglycine 162
 - valrocecide 162
 - valsartan 547
 - vamicamide 238
 - vancomycin 361
 - vandetanib 373
 - vanilloid-1 antagonists 25
 - vanoxerine 241
 - vapiprost 542
 - varidenafil 443
 - varenicline 272, 422
 - vascular disrupting agents 381
 - vasoconstrictors 126, 296, 505
 - vasodilators
 - cerebral 221, 236, 283, 287, 298, 422, 440
 - coronary 66, 93, 94, 229, 230, 241, 278, 440
 - peripheral 236, 242, 250, 282, 283, 285, 401, 437, 441, 539, 540
 - vasopressin agonists 360
 - vasopressin antagonists 262, 376
 - vasopressors (antihypotensives)
 - 273, 282, 285, 407
 - vasoprotectants 88, 182
 - vatalanib 372, 421
 - Vater, Wulf 446
 - vecuronium 490
 - vegetables 17
 - VEGF inhibitors 371, 373
 - veliparib 386
 - velnacrine 414, 420
 - vemurafenib 370
 - venlafaxine 276
 - veralipride 218
 - verapamil 17, 277, 446
 - verlukast 423
 - vernakalant 330
 - veronal 193
 - verteporfin 565
 - vertigo 401; see also motion sickness
 - vesnarinone 425
 - vicriviroc 253
 - vidarabine 436
 - vigabatrin 43, 161
 - vilazodone 248
 - vildagliptin 342, 346
 - viloxazine 280, 322
 - vinblastine 297
 - vinca alkaloids 291, 297, 298
 - vincamine 298
 - vincristine 297
 - vindesine 298
 - vinflunine 298
 - vinorelbine 297
 - vinpocetine 298
 - vinyl bromides 53
 - vinyl chloride 49
 - vinyl chlorides 52
 - vinyl fluorides 43
 - vinyl groups 40–43
 - vinylbital 199
 - viral infections, see antivirals
 - viramidine 429
 - vismodegib 366
 - vitamin A 153
 - vitamin B₃ 398, 399
 - vitamin B₉ 551
 - vitamin C 77
 - vitamin D analogs 488, 489
 - vitamin D₂ 488
 - vitamin D₃ 489
 - vitamin E (tocopherol) 86
 - vitamin H (biotin) 162
 - vitamin K antagonists 143
 - Vogl, Alfred 451
 - volume of distribution 6
 - volume, body fluids 7
 - vomiting, see antiemetics, emetics
 - von Mering, Josef 188, 193
 - voreloxin 516
 - voriconazole 389
 - vorinostat 156
 - VX-702 366
- W**
- Wani, Mansukh C. 554
 - warfarin 60, 139, 142, 349
 - weight reduction, see anorexics
 - Western yew tree 554
 - willow bark extracts 497
 - Willstätter, Richard 215
 - Wintersteiner, Oskar 522
 - Wong, Pancras C. 543
 - worms, see anthelmintics
- X**
- xamoterol 327
 - xanomeline 264
 - xanthine oxidase inhibitors 439, 445, 510
 - xemilofiban 363
 - xibenolol 321
 - ximelagatran 121, 362
 - ximoprofen 499

xipamide 454
X-ray contrast agents 72, 75, 76

Y

YH1885 370, 406
YM-150 367
yohimbine 299

Z

zafirlukast 511
zalcitabine 430
zaleplon 371
zaltoprofen 501
zamifenacin 278
zanamivir 122, 129
zatebradine 277
zatosetron 223
ZD 9331 147, 552
zebularine 429

zenarestat 502
zidovudine 58, 432
zileuton 192, 194
zimeldine 71, 231
ziprasidone 244
zofenopril 164, 339
zoledronic acid 212
zolmitriptan 292
zolpidem 52, 410
zomepirac 503
zonampanel 501
zoniporide 131
zonisamide 457
zopiclone 427
zopolrestat 502
zosuquidar 254, 327
zotarolimus 558
zotepine 140, 318
zuclopenthixol 308